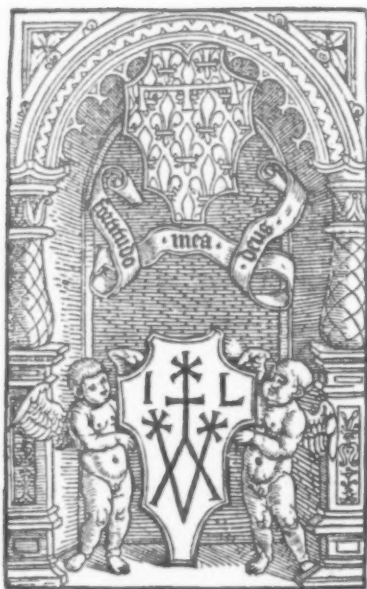


JUL 17 1948

2 THE  
LIBRARY  
QUARTERLY



PERIODICAL ROOM  
GENERAL LIBRARY  
UNIV. OF MICH.

VOLUME XVIII · JULY 1948 · NUMBER 3  
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science

Established by The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago with the Co-operation of The American Library Association, The Bibliographical Society of America, and The American Library Institute.

## BOARD OF EDITORS

*Managing Editor*

LEON CARNOVSKY

*Editorial Assistant*

MARY M. SIMPSON

*Associate Editors*

BERNARD R. BERELSON

PIERCE BUTLER

FRANCES E. HENNE

JESSE H. SHERA

DOUGLAS WAPLES

*Advisory Editors*

RALPH A. BEALS, Director, New York Public Library

WM. W. BISHOP, Librarian Emeritus, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

LESLIE E. BLISS, Librarian, Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery, San Marino

EDWARD J. CARTER, Head, Libraries Section, UNESCO

CLARENCE H. FAUST, Director of Libraries, Stanford University

F. C. FRANCIS, Secretary, British Museum, London

ERNESTO G. GIETZ, Librarian, Facultad de Ciencias Exactas, Físicas y Naturales, Colegio Nacional de Buenos Aires, Buenos Aires

CARLETON B. JOECKEL, School of Librarianship, University of California, Berkeley

CARL H. MILAM, Director of United Nations Libraries, Lake Success, N.Y.

RALPH MUNN, Director, Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh

WILHELM MUNTHE, Director, University Library, Oslo

CHARLES R. SANDERSON, Chief Librarian, Toronto

HENRY B. VAN HOESER, Librarian, Brown University, Providence

EDWIN ELLIOTT WILLOUGHBY, Chief Bibliographer, Folger Shakespeare Library, Washington, D.C.

LOUIS R. WILSON, Dean Emeritus, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago

**The Library Quarterly** was established by the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, with the assistance of the Carnegie Corporation, to fill the need suggested by a committee of the American Library Association for a journal of investigation and discussion in the field of librarianship. It is published in January, April, July, and October by the University of Chicago at the University Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. The subscription price is \$5.00 per year; the price of single copies is \$1.50. Orders for service of less than a full year will be charged at the single-copy rate. Postage is prepaid by the publishers on all orders from the United States and its possessions, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Republic of Honduras, Mexico, Morocco (Spanish Zone), Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Rio de Oro, El Salvador, Spain (including Balearic Islands, Canary Islands, and the Spanish Offices in Northern Africa; Andorra), Spanish Guinea, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Postage is charged extra as follows: for Canada and Newfoundland, 20 cent on annual subscriptions (total \$5.20), on single copies 5 cents (total \$1.55); for all other countries in the Postal Union, 48 cents on annual subscriptions (total \$5.48), on single copies 12 cents (total \$1.62). Patrons are requested to make all remittances payable to The University of Chicago Press in United States currency or its equivalent by postal or express money orders or bank drafts.

**The following** is an authorized agent for the British Empire, except North America and Australasia: The Cambridge University Press, Bentley House, 200 Euston Road, London, N.W. 1, England. Prices of yearly subscriptions and of single copies may be had on application.

**Claims for missing numbers** should be made within the month following the regular month of publication. The publishers expect to supply missing numbers free only when losses have been sustained in transit and when the reserve stock will permit.

**Business correspondence** should be addressed to The University of Chicago Press, Chicago 37, Ill.

**Communications** for the editors, manuscripts, and books for review should be addressed to the Managing Editor, **THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY**, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Ill.

**Applications for permission to quote** from this journal should be addressed to The University of Chicago Press, and will be freely granted.

Entered as second-class matter January 2, 1911, at the post office at Chicago, Illinois, under the Act of March 3, 1879. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in United States Postal Act of October 3, 1917, Section 1103, amended February 28, 1925, authorized January 9, 1931.

**[PRINTED  
IN U.S.A.]**

The  
ute,

de

o,  
an  
ed  
e,  
v.  
on  
ta  
co  
ic  
y,  
b-  
n,  
ed  
a-

a:  
of

a-  
it

l.  
a-  
ll,  
of

at-  
ed





# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

Vol. XVIII

CONTENTS FOR JULY 1948

No. 3

CERTIFICATION OF LIBRARIANS: IMPLICATIONS DRAWN FROM THE FIELD OF TEACHING . . . . .	RUTH KRAEMER	157
THE RELATION OF RURAL READING AND LIBRARY USE TO SOME ECOLOGICAL FACTORS . . . . .	EDGAR A. SCHULER AND GUS TURBEVILLE	171
COMMENTARY AND CRITICISM . . . . .	LOGAN WILSON	182
SOME RECOLLECTIONS OF WILLIAM LAWRENCE CLEMENTS AND THE FORMATION OF HIS LIBRARY . . . . .	WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP	185
THE STATUS OF STATE DOCUMENT BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	GWENDOLYN LLOYD	192
THE ACQUISITION AND PREPARATION DEPARTMENTS . . . . .	ALEX LADENSON	200
A COMPARISON OF REVIEWS OF BOOKS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN GENERAL AND IN SCHOLARLY PERIODICALS . . . . .	VICTORIA E. HARGRAVE	206
THE COVER DESIGN . . . . .	EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY	218
THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE . . . . .		219
REVIEWS:		
Zechariah Chafee, Jr., <i>Government and Mass Communications: A Report from the Commission on Freedom of the Press</i> . . . . .	REUBEN FRODIN	220
William Ernest Hocking, <i>Freedom of the Press: A Framework of Principle: A Report from the Commission on Freedom of the Press</i> . . . . .	STANLEY E. GWYNN	222
George Herbert Bushnell, <i>From Papyrus to Print: A Bibliographical Miscellany</i> . . . . .	HARRY M. LYDENBERG	224
P. H. Muir, <i>Book-collecting as a Hobby: In a Series of Letters to Everyman</i> . . . . .	MARIAN S. CARNOVSKY	225
<i>A History of the Council on Books in Wartime, 1942-1946</i> . . . . .	RALPH MUNN	226
Albert Predeck, <i>A History of Libraries in Great Britain and North America</i> . . . . .	J. H. SHERA	226
Julia Pettee (comp.), <i>List of Theological Subject Headings</i> . . . . .	JANNETTE E. NEWHALL	228
Herman H. Fussler (ed.), <i>Library Buildings for Library Service: Papers Presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 5-10, 1946</i> . . . . .	JOHN E. BURCHARD	229
Harold Baker Dunkel, <i>General Education in the Humanities</i> . . . . .	RUSSELL THOMAS	231
BOOKS RECEIVED . . . . .		233

T

—  
V  
—

F

ess  
pli  
oc  
by  
sal  
inc  
tic  
tic  
an  
gu  
the  
ur  
at  
An  
cit  
ce  
we  
of

th  
ce  
tic  
tu  
je  
kn  
or

# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

Volume XVIII

JULY 1948

Number 3

## CERTIFICATION OF LIBRARIANS: IMPLICATIONS DRAWN FROM THE FIELD OF TEACHING

RUTH KRAEMER

### INTRODUCTION

FOR almost forty years there has been a growing interest among librarians in certification, the legal process by which the state grants to an applicant the privilege of pursuing a certain occupation. It has been used successfully by several professions with the aim of safeguarding the public and protecting individuals in the profession from injustice. It is quite evident that such occupations as medicine, nursing, barbering, and engineering present very strong arguments for safeguarding the public. In the case of the teaching profession, failure to certify a teacher is not an immediate threat to public safety. However, the American tradition of a well-informed citizenry has made education a vital concern of the state, and the provision of well-qualified teachers is really a matter of protecting the public.

Librarians, too, attempt to justify their need for protection through legal certification by emphasizing their position as members of an educational institution. The division of libraries into subject departments calls for specialized knowledge. The expansion of services to organized groups, increased aid in schol-

arly research, and active interest in adult education have placed upon librarians responsibilities of an intellectual character with definite and practical ends. The objectives of the public library, as stated in *Post-war Standards for Public Libraries*,<sup>1</sup> exemplify the responsibilities felt by the library profession. The public library aims at providing opportunity and encouragement for the citizen to educate himself continuously, to keep abreast of progress in science and other fields of knowledge, to maintain a critical attitude to all public issues, to improve his ability to participate in civic activities, to equip himself for a useful occupation, to improve his aesthetic sense, to aid in the advancement of knowledge, and to make adequate use of his leisure time. It has often been stated that the public library is truly "the people's university."

It is argued that certification would provide the trustee with criteria of good service, protect the competent employee, raise the prestige of the profession, and

<sup>1</sup> American Library Association, Committee on Post-war Planning, *Post-war Standards for Public Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1943), p. 21.

insure qualified personnel. Insuring a qualified personnel and providing the trustee with criteria of good service both fall within the scope of adequate service to the public. Raising the prestige of the profession and protecting the competent employee are economic reasons for desiring protection by certification laws. It is argued that these economic reasons today contribute to adequate service in attracting the right kind of leadership.

At present there is no national uniformity in library certification. Less than half of the states have compulsory regulations. However, the American Library Association has gone on record as favoring legal certification in all states in order to "improve library service by raising the standard of library personnel and preventing the appointment of unqualified persons."<sup>1</sup> Assuming this aim to be valid, how can certification become an effective tool? Has it proved effective in other professions, and, if so, how can the library profession profit by their experiences?

This paper is an attempt to approach the problem of certification of librarians through a study of the teaching profession, a profession closely allied to librarianship and one in which certification has long been used. Schools and libraries are both institutions of education, and both are financed by public funds. Teachers and librarians are hired by the public and, once hired, their positions in the community are not competitive. After a brief survey of the history of certification of librarians, this study considers the various aspects of certification, analyzing the practices, trends, and success of certification in the field of teaching. Then the aim is to make whatever application is possible to the problem of certification of librarians.

<sup>1</sup>"Looking toward National Planning," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXVIII (1934), 459.

#### REVIEW OF CERTIFICATION OF LIBRARIANS IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES

The most pronounced interest among librarians in certification was exhibited around 1921, and since 1930 there has been a continued interest. As early as 1906 certification was mentioned in a paper read before the League of Library Commissioners.<sup>2</sup> The first state to consider legislation was Ohio, but its bill of 1908 was not adopted. California's requirement for certification of county librarians in 1909 was the first legal act. C. C. Williamson, then of the New York Public Library and an enthusiastic advocate of certification, stimulated much interest among librarians by a speech given in 1919 before the Asbury Park Conference on "Some Present Day Aspects of Library Training."<sup>3</sup> His plea was for country-wide certification to give the librarians a definite professional objective, to insure a reasonable degree of competency, and to raise standards as quickly as conditions would permit.

As a result of the growing interest, Williamson was named chairman of an A.L.A. committee to consider and present proposals for a scheme of certification. The committee report was submitted at the Swampscott Conference in 1921 and was the most thorough study up to that time.<sup>4</sup> The proposal was for a national voluntary system headed by a national board which would exercise a degree of supervision over library schools and serve as an accrediting agency for librarians. This report failed of indorsement, but the matter was referred back to the committee for the formulation of

<sup>2</sup>C. F. Baldwin, "State Examinations for Librarians," *Library Journal*, XXXI (1906), 806-8.

<sup>3</sup>*Library Journal*, XLIV (1919), 563-68.

<sup>4</sup>"National Certification and Training," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XV (1921), 78-98.

standards to be recommended for incorporation in state laws.

In 1934 the Executive Board of the American Library Association appointed a Planning Committee which drew up recommendations to the Council looking toward national planning. Among these proposals indorsed by the Council at the Montreal Conference, June, 1934, was one urging the enactment of laws in every state providing for certification of librarians.

By 1936, according to a compilation made by the A.L.A., there were five states—New York, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and Washington—which had passed laws regarding certain municipal libraries. Ten states had county library certification and seventeen required school librarians to hold certificates. Voluntary plans were found in seven states.<sup>6</sup>

Although a country-wide plan no longer was being considered by the A.L.A., active interest in promotion of legal certification on a state basis was evidenced in the Richmond Conference of 1936. The open meeting, held jointly by the Board of Education for Librarianship, the League of Library Commissioners, and the National Association of State Libraries, was on the subject, "Certification of Librarians."<sup>7</sup> The value of certification was accepted without question, but no definite action was taken.

The Board of Education for Librarianship had published during the same year (1936) some helpful suggestions to states which were considering drafting certification laws and to state boards which were

faced with the responsibility of formulating codes of requirements for various grades of certificates. These suggestions tried to clarify such items as the aims and advantages of certification, the question of enforcement and control, the objections raised by individuals, and the methods of securing legislation.

Twenty-three states (see Table 1) have statutes requiring certification in some, if not all, public libraries, and about one-half of these laws were passed in the 1930's. Five of these states extend certification to librarians in institutions of higher education, which had thus far been little concerned about the problem. In over one-third of the states bills have been introduced which have failed. Voluntary certification was introduced in some of these same states and also in several states where a voluntary system was considered more practical as a first step toward eventual legislation. However, according to such sources as state laws, some personal correspondence, and published articles available to the writer, only Indiana and New Jersey have thus far succeeded in passing from a voluntary to a legal system. Six states have legislation for county libraries, but not for municipal libraries.

One of the major problems in securing effective legislation is to find a means of enforcement. Local boards are not bound to observe voluntary regulations. If a board of trustees or a librarian fails to comply, no penalty can be imposed. A few states attempt to keep some control over appointments of county librarians by requiring appointing boards to choose only candidates who have passed an examination given by the certifying board of the state. One of the best examples of this procedure is in California. Several states have met the problem of enforcement by making state aid de-

<sup>6</sup>"Certification—a Summary," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXX (1936), 886.

<sup>7</sup>American Library Association, Board of Education for Librarianship, "Joint Meeting with League of Library Commissioners and N.A.S.L.," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXX (1936), 636-44.

pendent upon certification. Michigan is an outstanding example of this method of enforcement.

In states having legal certification, minimum requirements are very similar to those in states having only voluntary certification, with the exception that examinations are more often employed to determine qualifications in lieu of formal training. Only two states, Louisiana and Texas, require examinations in addition to other qualifications.

The certification boards all serve without compensation. Maryland, New York, and Tennessee designate already established agencies such as the commissioner or state board of education as the certifying body. The names of all state boards are very similar, the most common being "State Board of Library Examiners" or "Library Certification Board."

Library certification laws show an inequality and unevenness in standards, authority, and enforcement. *Post-war*

TABLE 1  
STATUS OF CERTIFICATION IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES: 1947  
SHOWING EARLIEST DATE OF ADOPTION IN EACH STATE\*

STATE	COMPULSORY CERTIFICATION		VOLUN- TARY CERTI- FICATION	NO CERTI- FICATION	STATE	COMPULSORY CERTIFICATION		VOLUN- TARY CERTI- FICATION	NO CERTI- FICATION
	County Librari- ans	Municipal Librarians				County Librari- ans	Municipal Librarians		
Alabama.....				X	Nevada.....				X
Arizona.....	1929				New Hampshire.....			1937	
Arkansas.....	1927				New Jersey.....	1947	1947		
California.....	1911		1921		New Mexico.....	1947	1947**		
Colorado.....				X	New York.....	1932	1921**		
Connecticut.....			1939†		North Carolina.....	1933	1933		
Delaware.....				X	North Dakota.....				X
Florida.....				X	Ohio.....	1936			
Georgia.....	1937‡	1937§			Oklahoma.....	1925	1925††		
Idaho.....				X	Oregon.....				X
Illinois.....			1931		Pennsylvania.....			1937	
Indiana.....	1941	1941			Rhode Island.....				X
Iowa.....			1921		South Carolina.....	1935	1935		
Kansas.....				X	South Dakota.....			1937	
Kentucky.....	1938	1938			Tennessee.....	1921	1937‡‡		
Louisiana.....	1926	1926¶			Texas.....	1919	1919§§		
Maine.....				X	Utah.....				X
Maryland.....	1945	1945			Vermont.....				X
Massachusetts.....			1940		Virginia.....	1936	1936‡‡		
Michigan.....	1937	1937			Washington.....	1935	1935		
Minnesota.....			1920		West Virginia.....				X
Mississippi.....				X	Wisconsin.....	1921	1921¶¶		
Missouri.....			1934		Wyoming.....				X
Montana.....	1923				Total.....	23	17	12	16
Nebraska.....	1935		1934						

\* Sources: American Library Association, Board of Education for Librarianship, *Certification of Librarians* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1945) (for voluntary schemes); Statutes of the individual states.

† Law of 1939 allows voluntary certification.

‡ Except county law libraries.

§ For cities of 5,000 population and over.

\*\* Authority given to Regents to fix standards of library service.

†† For cities of first class and head librarians only.

‡‡ For cities of 5,000 population and over.

§§ If by contract it assumes the functions of a county library.

|| For cities of 4,000 population and over.

|| Except the Parish of Orleans.

¶ Except New Orleans.

¶¶ Except Milwaukee.



*Standards for Public Libraries*, the purpose of which was to formulate working standards for public library service, points out the variability from state to state of library service and of library coverage. The movement toward extending library service to all people in the United States calls for the raising of library service at least to a minimum level in financial support, book collection, services, and personnel. Extension of library service means not merely setting up a library with adequate materials but seeing that there is a competent personnel to administer it and that a standard is recognized below which service would not be adequate. Many feel that certification is one means which states can use to raise and control these personnel standards.

#### ADMINISTRATION OF CERTIFICATION

Administration of certification for teachers was once purely a local matter. When the public school idea developed, it seemed desirable to transfer certification to a more central unit of government. There was much bitter opposition to centralization, and the development has been slow. In the early nineteenth century there began the movement away from local authorities to control by the county and, later, to control by the state. There has been an increasing trend toward centralization since 1898 and a decline in certification by city systems.<sup>9</sup> A first sign of the tendency toward centralization in the state was the decision to allow the state superintendent to grant certificates with state-wide validity. There has been a continued centralization of certification in state boards or

departments of education and a corresponding decline in the number of states in which school officers of counties, cities, or higher institutions issue certificates.<sup>9</sup> The increasing power of the state in granting certificates led state departments to create divisions of certification. The oldest board of education was established in New York in 1784. Now thirty-nine states have either constitutional or statutory provisions for boards.<sup>10</sup>

There is general agreement that there should not be a multiplicity of state agencies dealing with education and that education is a state function. The advantages of centralization of authority are uniformity, state-wide validity, economy, and removal of certification authorities from local pressures.

The *Study of Teacher Certification* made by the North Central Association in 1941 concludes that there should be a single certifying agency in each state to reflect long-term co-operative thinking, encourage study and experimentation on the part of local school systems, provide leadership and clearing-house service, plan for reciprocity, and encourage and require state and institutional research and planning. The law providing for a single state agency should operate under a broad grant of power.

Library certification is still in a more or less experimental stage. Less than half of the states have reached the point where it is a compulsory requirement. Lack of uniformity in state regulations, such as has been experienced in teaching,

<sup>9</sup> B. Frazier, *Teacher Certification in Wartime* (U.S. Office of Education, Circular No. 213 [Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942]), p. 1.

<sup>10</sup> W. S. Deffenbaugh and W. W. Keesecker, *State Boards of Education and Chief State School Officers* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 6, Monograph No. 1 [Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941]), pp. 1, 3.

<sup>8</sup> B. Frazier, *Development of State Programs for Certification of Teachers* (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 12 [Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938]), pp. 15-16.

is very evident. Authority for personnel selection and for decisions on necessary qualifications is almost purely local. States with compulsory legislation are beginning to centralize authority in a board, but even these boards do not regulate all libraries because the laws apply in some states only to county librarians or cities of a certain size or because the laws exempt certain cities.

The outstanding trend in teaching has been the movement from local to more centralized control, and the foremost argument in its favor is that it would furnish a uniform standard for the entire state. Centralization of certification would also mean the separation of appointment from the responsibility of licensing. It has been the experience in teaching that local groups are not competent to judge credentials of professional training because they have neither the time nor the facilities to appraise the standards of the training institutions. In the teaching field state boards have come to depend upon national or regional accrediting agencies in judging professional training. In like manner local trustees of libraries should have the benefit of some state authority responsible for setting standards by which the qualifications of librarians may be judged. Setting up minimum standards through certification does not imply that authority for selection is taken away from local officials. On the contrary, that is their particular responsibility. But with definite standards set by a central body, they are less likely to lower standards because of ignorance, economic considerations, or political pressure.

State library associations have been urged to introduce a voluntary system as a step toward eventual compulsory certification of librarians. So far as is known, only two states have actually moved

from the one to the other. As voluntary certification usually means that only those who are already qualified are interested in certification, it would seem that nothing less than compulsory certification will secure uniformity of standards.

A centralized state board will be an effective body only if its powers are broad and flexible. The A.L.A. Committee on Post-war Planning concludes that

the simplest and most effective type of certification law is one which creates a certification board or agency and authorizes this agency to determine the grades and types of certificates and to administer the certification system. This method has the advantage of flexibility.<sup>11</sup>

In the teaching field the principle that laymen as well as professional people should be represented on these boards is much approved. The board need not be an independent unit if it can be placed under the jurisdiction of some established governmental agency.

#### BASIS FOR ISSUANCE OF CERTIFICATES

In the teaching field the early practice was to issue certificates on the basis of examinations, but the modern tendency has been to discontinue this requirement. In 1883 California began recognizing diplomas as a basis for certification, and later other states recognized graduation. Gradually exemptions were extended to those who were graduates of liberal arts colleges and normal schools, and by 1927 all states issued some certificates on the basis of college attendance.<sup>12</sup> By 1933 only twenty-five states still issued certificates to elementary teachers on the

<sup>11</sup> *National Plan for Public Library Service*, prepared for the Committee on Post-war Planning of the A.L.A. by Carleton B. Joeckel and Amy Winslow (Chicago: American Library Association, 1948), p. 64.

<sup>12</sup> S. G. Noble, *History of American Education* (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1938), p. 389.



basis of examinations.<sup>13</sup> The trend today is still toward the discontinuance of certification by examination. In 1942 some certificates were still being issued by examination in seventeen states and in every state on college credentials.<sup>14</sup>

It has been felt that examinations lead to unfair competition. Often local pressure is brought to bear on the examiner, and certification by examination grows cumbersome as the number of fields and subjects increase. Some of the reasons given for certification by credentials are that standards are higher than for certification by examination, that ability to recall factual material is not a satisfactory single criterion, and that credentials provide for professional improvement of teachers.

Recently, however, there has been a growing dissatisfaction with certification merely on the basis of credits. Amassing a group of semester hours is no guarantee that an individual is qualified to teach. There are several reasons advanced for retaining examinations. Erudition is far less important than qualities of personality; many forms of educational experience are better obtained from private study than from formal school instruction; and suitable examinations could be designed to test desired traits and qualities.

The Committee on National Teacher Examination of the American Council of Education believes that examinations can and do measure the essential elements of teaching ability more accurately than any present device or method.<sup>15</sup> Since 1940 it has been administering annually the National Teacher Examination.

<sup>13</sup> W. S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher* (New York: American Book Co., 1939), p. 342.

<sup>14</sup> Frazier, *Teacher Certification in Wartime*, p. 3.

<sup>15</sup> *National Teacher Examinations: Announcements of the 1945 Examinations* (New York: American Council on Education, 1945), pp. 4-5.

tion. These examinations, given on a voluntary basis, are designed to be used in addition to and not as a substitute for present bases of selection. They are being used in some colleges as qualifying examinations and for guidance in showing the student his weaknesses in the areas measured by these tests. Some superintendents and boards require that their teaching applicants present a National Teacher Examination record.

The British library system is based almost entirely upon examinations. But the library setup in Great Britain is somewhat different from that in the United States, inasmuch as there were no library schools giving full-time training until the School of Librarianship was established at the University of London in 1919, and it was the only library school until the end of World War II.

In the United States the Columbia University School of Library Service attempts to measure competence by examinations. An examining division was set up to prepare comprehensive, objective examinations which would supply a better test of proficiency than the traditional course examinations.<sup>16</sup> These examinations are now being used to encourage the student to progress through a course of study as rapidly as he can show himself qualified. Students have passed immediately to the Master's program by satisfying the requirements of the first-year program through tests of this kind.<sup>17</sup> These examinations are reported to be based on a fair sampling and to be reasonably comprehensive.

<sup>16</sup> C. C. Williamson, "The Comprehensive Examination as Used in the Columbia University School of Library Service," *Association of American Library Schools, Report of Meeting* (Kansas City, June 13, 1938), pp. 18-19. (Mimeographed.)

<sup>17</sup> Columbia University, School of Library Service, *Report of the Dean of the School of Library Service, for the Academic Year Ending June 30, 1946* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1946), p. 23.

Where certification of librarians is required by law, examinations are sometimes employed to determine qualifications in lieu of formal training. As previously mentioned, Louisiana and Texas require examinations in addition to other qualifications. Louisiana has both oral and written examinations, and candidates falling below a 75 per cent grade in personality and fitness, and executive ability, may be denied a certificate.<sup>18</sup> Texas has a three-part examination. Part I is an objective test covering library law in Texas and in the United States. Part II is an essay question to test the candidate's ability to organize and express ideas. Part III is an interview conducted by the examiner and supplemented by statements from persons knowing the candidate. Exemptions are made from Parts I and II, with the exception of the part dealing with library law in Texas. But no exemptions are granted from Part III.<sup>19</sup>

A suggestion made in the teaching field might be applied in the library field, namely, the voluntary examination. Cubberley, in 1906, suggested the creation of a national board to issue certificates for teachers, which could be voluntarily accepted by the states and which could be on a high enough level to be accepted by any state.<sup>20</sup>

A plan for national certification was suggested to the A.L.A. in 1921 by a committee headed by C. C. Williamson.<sup>21</sup>

<sup>18</sup> American Library Association, Board of Education for Librarianship, *Certification of Librarians* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1945), p. 13.

<sup>19</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 31.

<sup>20</sup> E. P. Cubberley, "Certification of Teachers," *National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, 5th Yearbook*, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1906), 74.

<sup>21</sup> "National Certification and Training," *op. cit.*, pp. 78-98.

The plan called for a national certification board to issue several grades of certificates and to act as an accrediting agency for library schools. The board would also construct and administer examinations by which individuals without formal library-school training could be awarded these national certificates.

A possible solution for librarians might be the establishment of a national board of library examiners whose chief duty would be devising examinations to cover basic library-school courses and special fields. These could serve to set standards which would be as high as, or higher than, those of any one state and could, therefore, be used for interstate exchange of certificates by persons interested in moving from one state to another. It might be urged that each state accept these national ratings for certification in the state. Library schools could use them in place of their own examinations, and they would provide a list of eligible people from which selection for jobs could be readily made.

But it should be understood that the authority to select librarians should still be in the hands of local authorities. Again, as in the case of the National Teacher Examinations, the examinations do not serve as the only basis for selection; such factors as personality, experience, and academic record would enter into consideration. State certification boards would still be free to grant certification on the basis of library-school credentials.

Since certificates are now granted by the states on the basis of an academic degree—a practice which is customary in the teaching field—an agency is needed to accredit library schools. Each state has the power to decide which schools shall be accepted for certification purposes; but, generally speaking, it is not

in a position to establish adequate standards without the help of some central agency which has the necessary staff and competence. The teaching field depends upon the regional associations and the American Association of Teachers Colleges for ratings on institutions of higher education. Likewise, the library profession uses the accreditation of the Board of Education for Librarianship. The library profession might well issue certificates, based on degrees, to graduates of accredited schools for whom the basic examination would probably mean an unnecessary repetition. But it might require examinations as a basis for issuing certificates to graduates of nonaccredited schools, or to those whose library knowledge has come from experience or in-service training.

#### QUALIFICATIONS FOR CERTIFICATION

The trend in certification of teachers has been toward raising the necessary educational requirements, differentiating on the basis of levels taught, and specializing on the basis of subject fields. There is also a tendency away from granting unconditional life certificates.

A competency in reading, writing, and arithmetic, with particular emphasis on morals and religion, was the qualification for teaching in New England. Certification was static during the Civil War, and even since 1900 more than half of the states issued certificates to applicants with no educational qualifications.

The level of preparation required has increased one year in every sixteen during the past century. In 1923 California was the only state requiring graduate work for a secondary-school certificate. In 1940, eight states required a Master's degree.<sup>22</sup> During the recent war there was a slight tendency in a few states to raise the minimum educational requirements.

It was formerly assumed that a person who held a certificate was actually qualified to teach at any level. Now, in the leading states, certificates issued on a basis of preparation for a certain level of teaching are valid only at that level. With the increase of specialization in subject fields, blanket certificates have been greatly reduced. About two-thirds of the states issue specialized certificates for teachers in agriculture, art, music, commerce, home economics, and other areas.<sup>23</sup>

Sixteen states are no longer issuing life certificates.<sup>24</sup> The National Education Association, in its study of 1930, found that state school authorities agreed that initial certificates should be limited to a few years, so that unsuccessful teachers could be eliminated.<sup>25</sup> Other authorities advocate either the abolition of life certificates or the attachment of conditions to them. Ohio issues a permanent certificate to those who have demonstrated professional ability and who might be expected to uphold the standards of the profession. It provides that a teacher progress step by step from a provisional to a permanent certificate, requiring five years' experience and a Master's degree.<sup>26</sup>

In the library profession there have been many who have entered through in-service training. In many small towns, trustees make a choice from among the local candidates most eligible as far as knowledge of books is concerned or from

<sup>22</sup> H. L. Sisk, "Trends in Requirements for Secondary School Certificates," *School Review*, XLVIII (1940), 291.

<sup>23</sup> B. Frazier, "Trends in Certification of Teachers," *School Life*, XXIV (1939), 123.

<sup>24</sup> "Wartime Changes in Teacher Certification," *Education for Victory*, III (1944), 10.

<sup>25</sup> Frazier, *Development of State Programs for Certification of Teachers*, op. cit., p. 104.

<sup>26</sup> H. J. Bowers, "New Rulings on Advanced Certificates," *Ohio Schools*, XVI (1938), 425.

among those most likely to accept the salary offered. In those cases training has come through personal initiative in reading and observing, or by trial and error.

In states having legal certification high-school graduation is the lowest academic requirement, but over two years of college is the minimum in equally as many states where all professional employees must be certified. The states requiring certification of only county librarians or head librarians have higher standards. Professional training required is divided about equally between those which stipulate about six weeks' training and those which specify at least a year.

Because of the variation in length of preprofessional training the question arises as to whether or not there should be a differentiation of certificates according to the amount of an individual's formal education. Since certification as presented here is concerned only with minimum standards, no system of differentiation by length of training is suggested. However, a minimum of three years of college in addition to professional training would be a reasonable requirement for a preprofessional certificate.

Certification involves the determination of minimum qualifications. Positions vary in their need of advanced training and years of experience. In formulating a certification program each state would need to consider and differentiate minimum requirements for each particular grade as determined by the size of the library and the responsibilities involved in the work. Several library associations, such as those of California and New Jersey, have already taken the lead in developing position classification plans. These standards in order to become uniform should be compulsory. The objective is to have in the United States well-

administered libraries of all sizes and kinds.

There seems to be a gradual trend in the library field toward improvement in the qualifications of personnel. Alvarez in his study of librarians in administrative positions in cities of the Middle West found that in several respects the present librarians were better qualified than their predecessors.<sup>27</sup> For example, only 15 per cent lacked previous professional experience as compared to 33 per cent of the earlier appointees, fewer were local residents, and the percentage of trained librarians was 4 per cent higher.

More attention might be given in the library field to specialization and training to fit definite types of jobs. Library-school students do select courses directed toward a particular field of work. However, when certificates are based only on a professional degree, each graduate secures the same kind of certificate, which actually makes him eligible for any branch of work regardless of his preparation or ability in that direction. Any system of certification needs to take into account general and special positions. Voluntary national examinations, as suggested previously, could cover the general field and make the applicant eligible for a certificate qualifying him to do library work for which such general knowledge would fit him. If he successfully passed an examination in one of the specialties, he could be eligible for such special positions as cataloging, administration, children's work, or reference.

The question of permanent certification also arises in the library field. As in teaching, a first certificate ought to be granted upon a temporary basis to facilitate the removal of misfits. The most

<sup>27</sup> R. S. Alvarez, "Qualifications of Public Librarians in the Middle West" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1943), pp. 123-24.

controversial question is whether or not the certificate beyond a first probationary one should be for life. The main contention is that certification should provide some means of keeping the individual professionally alert. Librarians should seriously consider the possibility of making permanent certificates conditional on additional training or experience.

#### ENFORCEMENT OF CERTIFICATION

Before a teacher can enter into a legal contract to teach in a public school, he must possess a valid certificate for the position he wishes to hold. Local boards of education have no discretion in the matter. An uncertified person otherwise has a void contract and would not be able to recover his salary. Wartime demand for teachers has brought some leniency in the issuance of emergency certificates, minor adjustments in certification requirements, and a more liberal renewal of certificates which have lapsed. Local boards, however, are being urged to hire as few as possible of those who hold such temporary certificates.

All states have a chief educational officer, and each state has a department of education. In three-fourths of the states the state school officer is charged with the responsibility for seeing that the law is enforced. Twelve states vest this duty with the state board of education. For example, in Alabama a state board may review the action of local boards and decide upon controversies. Maryland's board may institute legal proceedings to enforce laws, and its decisions are final. Appeals in New Jersey may be taken to the Supreme Court.<sup>23</sup>

The state boards usually have control of the administration and distribution of school funds, which, in itself, gives a

means of control over local schools. States granting state aid or receiving federal aid for any type of special or vocational education have a means of demanding certain qualifications of the teachers in those fields. If proposed legislation for federal aid to education becomes an actuality, the state in administering the funds could refuse aid to those schools which did not conform to certification standards.

A license granted by a state is revocable. Most states enumerate specific causes for which a teaching certificate may be revoked. Usually the body which has power to grant certificates has the power to revoke them. If the rights of either the local board of education or the teacher are infringed, the remedy is a resort to the courts. In actual practice no great number are ever suspended or revoked.

Enforcement is the test of any law. If each state had compulsory certification for librarians, if there were a national standard set through a national examination, more uniform standards could be established throughout all states. The state licensing agencies could use their influence in refusing to recognize for certification the credentials from unapproved schools.

An important feature in a program of certification of librarians is the centralization of control of licensing in some definite body in the state. This issuing agency should also have the power to enforce certification regulations, and provision for this should be made by law.

A definite statement should also be made in the library certification law regarding the revocation of licenses for just cause. Test cases have been numerous in the teaching field. It might strengthen the power of revocation if the licensing of several occupations were cen-

<sup>23</sup> Deffenbaugh and Keesecker, *op. cit.*, pp. 85-86.



tralized in one state board. Those appealing their cases might then feel that they were appearing before an impartial body.

Teachers are required to have a certificate before any contract given to them is considered legal. Public librarians do not receive contracts, and, therefore, the law should be explicit in stating the illegality of hiring any person without a certificate. Most of the states which already have compulsory certification for librarians make some provision for enforcement. According to county library laws in some states, it is unlawful for a board or governing body of any county library to appoint a head of a library or department who does not have a certificate meeting the qualifications for a county librarian. For example, California has set up a Board of Library Examiners to pass upon the qualifications of all persons desiring to be county librarians. Appointments are made by the Board of Supervisors of the county, but no one is eligible to the office unless he has received a certificate from the Board of Library Examiners. A certificate, when granted after a successful written examination and oral interview, is valid for five years and must be renewed by the same procedure.<sup>29</sup> Virginia's certification law provides that libraries operated by the state serving a population of 5,000 or over shall not employ in the position of librarian or in any full-time professional position a person who does not hold a library certificate issued by the state board.<sup>30</sup> Kentucky adds to its law that a violation of any part of the act will be considered a misdemeanor and that a fine of not less than \$10 or more than \$100 will be exacted for each offense.<sup>31</sup>

<sup>29</sup> *California General Laws*, 1937, Act. 2750, sec. 8.

<sup>30</sup> *Virginia Code of 1936*, sec. 363.

<sup>31</sup> 1938 Supplement Carroll's *Kentucky Statutes*, sec. 4618-130.

These legal provisions are important for protection in case of legal action in court.

Granting or withholding of funds is one of the best ways of securing a really effective enforcement of certification. The teaching profession furnishes a good example of regulation of personnel by state and federal aid. To secure funds for vocational agriculture or home economics the school must select teachers meeting certain qualifications.

In the library field, state aid is increasingly being used as a means of equalizing library service, of bringing service to new areas, or of supplementing already existing service. It is probably the most potent weapon librarians have in raising personnel standards. General statements, making eligibility for funds conditional upon personnel standards, could probably be inserted into the state aid law without much difficulty. But it would be essential, for this provision in the law to be effective, to have some strong state agency which was authorized to set reasonable standards. The Michigan state aid law has the important feature of making eligibility for state aid dependent upon meeting certification requirements established by the State Board for Libraries.<sup>32</sup> Since 1942 the State Board for Libraries in co-operation with the State Board of Control for Vocational Education has provided workshops in order to help beginners and those in small libraries to qualify for certificates as librarians in areas serving under 5,000 people.<sup>33</sup> County or regional libraries in Virginia, in order to receive state aid, must by act of 1942 conform to the provisions for certification of li-

<sup>32</sup> *Michigan Statutes*, XI (1941), Supplement, sec. 15.1791 (7a).

<sup>33</sup> L. D. Fyan, "Michigan's Postwar Plan for Library Extension," in *Library Extension*, ed. by Carleton B. Joeckel (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946), 175.

brarians.<sup>34</sup> Maryland in 1945 secured legislation allowing the establishment of county public libraries with state aid if standards set by the State Board of Education are met.<sup>35</sup>

Federal aid to libraries is also a means which can be used to enforce certification, although it has been less readily accepted than state aid plans. The proposed federal aid bill of 1947 carries the stipulation that to qualify under this act a state plan prepared by the state library administrative agency for utilization of federal funds should "contain such provisions as to the qualifications of personnel for appointment and administering the plan as are necessary to the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards."<sup>36</sup> The law does not actually specify certification as such, but it does give each state an opportunity to require certification as necessary to the establishment and maintenance of personnel standards.

Still another step beyond using state aid for enforcement is that of withholding all state funds or of placing a fine on an individual library which does not comply with certification laws. A recent example is New Mexico's law passed on March 12, 1947, refusing public funds to libraries failing to comply with the provision for certification.<sup>37</sup>

#### FURTHER PROBLEMS

Thus far most of the material published on the subject of certification has been an expression of opinion rather than

a factual study. Objections to certification seem to be based more on fear of changing the status quo rather than on whether or not the aims of certification are basically sound. Librarians all agree that it is desirable to raise the standards of the profession and to have some definite plan for this purpose. But is the assumption that certification raises the standards of library personnel really sound? Is there a difference in quality between certified and noncertified personnel? If the assumption is true, then states having no certification laws should fall below those which have compulsory certification. A comparative study might be made of certified and noncertified librarians in a state with only voluntary certification; or of librarians in states with voluntary certification, and compulsory certification, respectively. The question to be investigated would be whether or not certification actually results in the employment of more competent personnel.

Furthermore, are librarians sure that present standards on which certification is determined are satisfactory? Perhaps new concepts of library service have changed the criteria for judging the training and qualities necessary for library personnel. Perhaps a completely new approach to certification might be made, if consideration were first given to present-day criteria for effective library personnel.

Most states with compulsory certification laws require a library degree, especially for the higher positions. But there are many administrative positions now held by people without specific library training. Does this indicate that library training is not essential, or are there certain professional positions which could be open to people not trained in library schools? Comparison of individual li-

<sup>34</sup> *Virginia Code of 1942* (cumulative supplement, 1946), chap. xxiii, sec. 365(1)(3).

<sup>35</sup> *Maryland Public General Laws*, art. 77, chap. 15 (chap. 980 of *Laws of 1945*, secs. 167c and 173).

<sup>36</sup> U.S. Congress, Senate, *Public Library Service Demonstration Act* (S. 48 [80th Cong., 1st sess.]), sec. 5(a), art. 3.

<sup>37</sup> *Laws of New Mexico, 1947*, chap. xci(m).

brarians in administrative positions and of the training required for these positions might be a means of arriving at some conclusions about the importance of library training for these positions.

Certification as discussed here considers only minimum qualifications and is, therefore, not concerned with levels of work performed. However, with attempts being made by library schools today to compress the first year of library training and introduce it at a lower academic level, the troublesome question of assessing length of training will naturally arise. Should the same types of positions be open for all, or should length of pre-professional and professional training determine both the type of certificate issued and the kind of position for which the individual is eligible?

No program of compulsory certification will ever be satisfactory until there is adequate provision for enforcement. Libraries are essentially local in their organization and legal status. What reason is there then to believe that a state law requiring certification can be enforced? Putting a law upon our statute books does not automatically solve our prob-

lems, and in setting up a program of certification librarians should be careful to insure that the law is capable of enforcement.

A few other questions have been raised, such as whether or not certificates should be issued for life, or whether requirements for a degree could be satisfied entirely by examinations and hence a professional certificate secured entirely by examination. Other problems will arise in regard to the administration and formulation of certification laws, to which further attention will need to be given. But the most basic problems are those concerned with the justification and need for certification.

Notwithstanding the many problems still to be solved in the field of certification, librarians have felt that it is a necessary step in improving library personnel and in protecting individuals in the profession. Likewise they have felt it to be a first and necessary step in the development and extension of library service. It is then important that further studies in the field be made in order to justify the place of certification in the whole library program.



## THE RELATION OF RURAL READING AND LIBRARY USE TO SOME ECOLOGICAL FACTORS

EDGAR A. SCHULER AND GUS TURBEVILLE

### INTRODUCTION

THE purposes of the present paper may be listed as follows: first, to call attention to an important field of research too largely neglected by sociologists, that is, the role of reading in the life and activities of the people; second, to present the Lenawee County (Michigan) Library research project as it is currently planned, including the collection of factual material on present reading interests and habits, the development of suitable new research procedures, and an appraisal of reading as a part of life in the county; and, third, to indicate hypotheses, preliminary results, and interpretations on some ecological phases of the Lenawee County project.

Justification for the present study is to be found in two types of considerations; first, the need for research in reading implied by the adult education movement, rising levels and standards of living, and the need for public enlightenment in a democratic society; second, the immediate prospect of certain federal legislation which will require and stimulate increased research in reading.

The importance of adequate facilities for adult education, including self-instruction such as may come about through serious reading, in the development and maintenance of an informed public opinion seems hardly debatable. In spite of the wide distribution of radio broadcasting and receiving facilities, this medium has serious limitations, at least as it is currently functioning in our society, as a source of information by which

enlightened public opinion can be expected to develop.<sup>1</sup> The daily newspaper likewise, with few notable exceptions, makes little pretense or effort to present its readers with a substantial range of points of view regarding major current issues. In general, the same is true of most magazines of wide circulation. But for a professedly democratic society there is too little reliable information on the actual reading behavior of large sections of the population, the consequences of that reading, and the attitudes, interests, opinions, information, and misinformation which accompany, cause, or result from it. Too little, also, is known about the relationships between reading by key individuals in the social structure and the formation or modification of public opinion.

With regard to a second factor—the level of living maintained by a group or class of people—the availability and adequacy of reading matter and other services provided by libraries is significant. The promise and realization of gradually rising levels of living is one of the fundamental characteristics of our society. But to what extent are the various segments of this society profiting by improvements in the availability and adequacy of library services? Economic, regional, racial, and rural-urban differentials are known in a broad way, and in more de-

<sup>1</sup> See the report by the Federal Communications Commission, *Public Service Responsibility of Broadcast Licenses* (Washington: Federal Communication Commission, March 7, 1946), especially Part III, "Some Aspects of 'Public Interest' in Program Service," pp. 12-47.

tail for limited areas. For years efforts have been directed toward parity of income for farm people as compared with nonfarm people; emphasis is now shifting in the direction of parity in services and opportunities—parity in real income—including reading matter both for informational and for recreational purposes. Achievement toward this objective calls for appropriate research in urban as well as rural areas.

A third consideration is the bearing of reading matter on standards of living—reading matter as a factor in bringing about, through new facts and motivational material, changes in the values and criteria by which goodness of life is judged. It is not here contended that these changes in standards of living are necessarily accompanied by increased satisfaction, frustration, happiness, or discontent. What really happens, however, to standards of living as a result of reading is a problem certainly worthy of study.

In addition to the three general considerations just discussed, there is a specific factor which carries the same implications but much more pointedly: the Public Library Service Demonstration Act (S. 48), passed unanimously by the Senate, February 25, 1948.<sup>2</sup> Section 2(a) of this bill states:

It is the purpose of this Act to aid the States in demonstrating public-library service to those people now without it or with inadequate

<sup>2</sup> An identical bill, H.R. 2465, introduced by Representative Jenkins of Ohio, entitled the "Public Library Service Demonstration Act," which begins: "A bill to provide for the demonstration of Public-library service in areas without such service or with inadequate library facilities" is at the present time in the Republican Steering Committee and the House Rules Committee. See the published *Hearings* (Pp. 41) before a Subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, and the two-page mimeographed *Report* (to accompany S. 48) May 16, 1947 (Calendar No. 609, *Report* No. 580).

service, and to provide a means by which the values of public-library service may be studied and any resulting conclusions reported to the Nation.

This bill provides for annual federal appropriations of \$25,000 to each qualifying state for a period of five years, with additional appropriations on a matching basis ranging from \$25,000 to \$75,000 to each state qualifying with an expanded plan. The bill calls for the preparation of state demonstration plans which are to be submitted to the Commissioner of Education in order to receive the funds provided for. The state library administrative agency would be required to make reports "in such form and containing such information" as the Commissioner requires. Uniformity of state plans is not to be required as a condition for approval of the plans. However, it is apparent that if "the values of public-library service" are to "be studied and any resulting conclusions reported to the Nation," it will require more than such figures as are usually available: salaries paid, numbers of registered borrowers, and number of books circulated.

Here, it would seem, the sociologist has not only an opportunity but an obligation to create or adapt, sharpen up, and apply the most effective tools for analysis and measurement at his command. Any public library demonstration should include objective, quantitative, sociologically significant measures of changes in reading and library use which can correctly be attributed to the demonstration itself. The crucial problem, in our judgment, is the need for valid, reliable, reasonably economical, and not too complicated measures of the availability, adequacy, and use of library service. Availability, adequacy, and use as conceived and studied by the sociologist are likely to be different from avail-

ability, adequacy, and use as defined by legislators, librarians, or lay people. In other respects as well, various sociological approaches should contribute to more effective planning, execution, and evaluation of public library demonstrations and to the attainment of maximum benefits therefrom. The Lenawee County Library research project, about to be described, may serve to illustrate some of the possible approaches.

#### THE LENAWEE COUNTY LIBRARY STUDY

In the spring of 1946 the Department of Sociology and Anthropology of Michigan State College initiated plans for a comprehensive sociological study of a county library and its clientele, both actual and potential.<sup>3</sup> Tentative plans were prepared in connection with, and as an outgrowth of, the Michigan County Librarians' Workshop, held at the Western Michigan College of Education's camp at Clear Lake, Michigan, June, 1946. Dr. Judson Landis, acting for the Department, carried the major responsibility for planning both the social-science phases of the Workshop and the intensive county study.<sup>4</sup> As a result of the Workshop discussions between librarians and social scientists, the county library study plans were developed further, and an advisory Survey Committee was established with representation from the County Library Section of the Michigan Library Association, the Michigan State Library staff, and the Adult Education Program and the Department of Sociol-

ogy and Anthropology of Michigan State College.

The objectives of the intensive county study may be considered under three heads: *first*, collection of several types of factual data which should be of value in the formulation of library service policy and action programs for the county in question, to the ends of improving library service and strengthening and broadening the base of popular support for the public library system; *second*, the development of methods and techniques of research which might be employed in comparable county studies elsewhere and might also lead to simplifications suitable for use by county library administrators wishing to undertake such research; *third*, execution of a thorough sociological study of reading in the county, of the county library in relation to the life of the local people, and of the county library's role in the social structure and activities of the county.

Up to the present time the following steps have been taken. The Survey Committee proposed, in accordance with criteria laid down at the Workshop, certain counties as preferred for study. Among these, the county selected by the Department for investigation was Lenawee, in the southernmost tier, and adjacent to Monroe, which is at the southeast corner of Michigan. An interview schedule was formulated and twice tested and revised for field use. Since the interviewing was to be begun at a season when farm work was heavy, the first schedule was designed for presentation to housewives rather than to both farmers and wives. In actual practice, nineteen interviews (9 per cent of the sample) were taken with others than housewives as informants, but since the data utilized in the present paper are relatively objective in nature, the schedules taken from hus-

<sup>3</sup> The junior author of this paper was awarded a graduate assistantship to work on the study. Financial and other aid by the Adult Education Program of Michigan State College throughout this project is hereby gladly acknowledged.

<sup>4</sup> See Edgar A. Schuler, "A Workshop that Worked," *Extension Service Review*, XVII (1946), pp. 134-35.

bands, widowers, sons, and daughters were included.

It was decided that the Master Sample of Agriculture would provide the most satisfactory sampling device available and should be employed in the Lenawee County study.<sup>5</sup> This sample consists of a number of sharply defined small areas, selected on a controlled random basis, containing on the average about five families per small area unit or sample segment. It yields about one-eighteenth of the farm families for the entire United States, or for any state or county, and, because of the small size of the sampling unit, it generally provides well-dispersed sample coverage even for a county.

Since the approximate number of farms in the county was known, and the number of registered county library borrowers was known, it was estimated that the Master Sample would yield roughly one library-using family out of every ten interviewed. On this basis the schedule of interviews was designed primarily with non-library users in mind. Accordingly, the questioning began with such matters as newspaper and magazine reading, next took up books, and then led into questions dealing with libraries. The questions were designed to yield relevant data on attitudes, interests, opinions, and factual knowledge as well as on actual habits or practices. The schedule was concluded with a number of the conventional control questions, such as occupation, education, marital status, and tenure. Interviewing was begun late in July and carried on until late in September, 1946; twenty-one interviews were obtained subsequently.

The 54 Master Sample segments, that

<sup>5</sup> The kind co-operation of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and the Michigan Statistician's Office, U.S. Department of Agriculture, in providing the necessary materials and assistance is gratefully acknowledged.

is, small sampling areas, were found to contain 250 households, from which schedules were obtained at 205, or 82 per cent. The remainder included both cases which lacked suitable respondents (because of language difficulties or because of the absence of a housewife) and refusals. At least two, and in most cases more than two, calls were made at those houses at which no suitable respondent was available.

Phases of the project which are planned to be undertaken later include the following: an interview study of a sample of townspeople in those communities having a county library branch; mapping and verification of the major trade-center areas and other potentially significant ecological areas;<sup>6</sup> analysis of the class structure within a particular trade area; and a study of the local community and county leaders' reading, their attitudes, opinions, and knowledge about the county library, and their utilization of libraries.

#### ECOLOGICAL FACTORS

Let us now consider the ecological phases of the Lenawee County Library study for which data are available. The first hypothesis to be tested is that *the greater the road distance between open-country dwellers and the nearest library agency, the smaller will be the proportion of library users*. Table 1 was prepared to test this hypothesis. It will be noted that when the distance between respondent's residence and nearest library agency is less than three miles, the proportion of library users is 21 per cent. At all greater

<sup>6</sup> According to J. F. Thaden's published map, "The Farm People of Michigan According to Ethnic Areas, 1945," Lenawee County is largely Old American stock, in this respect being similar to most of the south central portion of the state. The map, however, shows limited portions of the county to be occupied by people of Germanic, Irish, and Mexican stocks.

distances the proportion of library users is about 10 per cent. But owing to the small number of cases and the small percentage differential, the difference cannot be claimed to be statistically significant even at the 10-per-cent level. If the two shorter distance categories are compared with the two longer distance categories, thus bringing the number of cases up to 104 and 101, respectively, the corresponding percentages of library users are 16 and 8, and the difference of 8 per cent is significant at the 10-per-cent level of confidence.

James G. Hodgson's dissertation entitled "Rural Reading,"<sup>7</sup> which reports on probably the most elaborate study of the topic in this country to date, contains some data which bear on the same hypothesis. His purpose was to make "a study of the function of Land-Grant Colleges in providing reading to rural areas, of the effectiveness of that service, and of its relative importance in the picture of reading in rural homes."<sup>8</sup> During the spring of 1944 he interviewed members of 300 families, 154 farm and 146 non-farm, in two counties providing county-wide public library service and in two counties lacking this service. One county of each type was selected in Indiana, and one of each type in Illinois.

Hodgson's sample of farm families was derived, however, by selecting certain rural mail routes leading out from the communities chosen for study in the selected counties providing library service, and by calling at every home along the stretch of road selected.<sup>9</sup> The result was that in one library-served county he found only two families who lived more

than three miles from the library branch, and in the other there were only eight families who lived more than four miles from the library branch. For this reason, as he points out, it was impossible for him "to get far enough away from some local library service to get any measure of the effectiveness of distance."<sup>10</sup> Nevertheless, he states that "distance from libraries . . . is an important factor in the

TABLE 1  
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF LIBRARY-USING AND NON-LIBRARY-USING FAMILIES BY REPORTED (HIGHWAY) DISTANCE FROM NEAREST LIBRARY AGENCY

DISTANCE FROM RESPONDENTS DWELLING TO NEAREST LI- BRARY AGENCY	CLASSIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS BY USE OF LIBRARY				TOTALS	
	Users		Nonusers			
	Num- ber	Per- cent- age	Num- ber	Per- cent- age	Num- ber	Per- cent- age
Less than 3 miles.....	10	21.3	37	78.7	47	100
3-4.9 miles..	7	12.3	50	87.7	57	100
5-6.9 miles..	5	8.1	57	91.9	62	100
7 miles and over.....	3	7.7	36	92.3	39	100
Totals...	25	12.2	180	87.8	205	100

use of libraries."<sup>11</sup> In support of this generalization, Hodgson cites a study by H. B. Chandler and J. T. Croteau,<sup>12</sup> dealing with a Prince Edward Island, Canada, regional library and its readers. In this Canadian survey it was found that "60 percent of all registrants live within one mile of their nearest branch library, 80 percent live within four miles, and 89 percent within six miles."<sup>13</sup>

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, chap. vi, p. 27.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>12</sup> *A Regional Library and Its Readers: A Study of Five Years of Rural Reading* (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1940).

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 97. All of chap xi (pp. 97-108) is devoted to a treatment of "Distance from the Library as a Factor in Reading."

<sup>7</sup> Bound manuscript, original of first version of Hodgson's Ph.D. dissertation, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, on file at the University of Chicago Library and at Fort Collins, Colorado, 1944.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, chap. i, p. 1.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, chap. i, pp. 16-17.



Hodgson concludes this discussion by stating that "distance may therefore be a major factor in explaining why only 28.4 percent of farm families [in his study] use available libraries."<sup>14</sup> It was shown (see Table 1) that in the present study only 12 per cent of the Master Sample families interviewed were found to be library users. It is certainly possible that there were higher proportions of library users among the farm families studied by Hodgson in northern Indiana and Illinois than there were in the present study in southeastern Michigan. It would seem very probable, however, that at least a part of the difference is due to the differences in the sampling methods employed. His procedure yielded very few families living over three or four miles from the nearest library agency, whereas the Master Sample procedure, covering the entire county, yielded 41 per cent of the families interviewed living at a highway distance of five miles or more from the nearest library agency.

To conclude the discussion on the first hypothesis, it may be said, first, that the data of this study do not confirm it without qualification, and, second, that there is a slight tendency for library use to be inversely related to distance from the library agency.

The second hypothesis to be tested is that *the pulling power of library agencies will vary directly with size of trade center in which they are located and inversely with distance*. For the purpose of illustrating this test, Figure 1 has been prepared. This figure is a simplified version of the Lenawee County map showing: (a) the

locations of the various library agencies; (b) area, shown by circle, within a five-mile radius of each library agency; (c) location of Master Sample segments, with sample families designated as book readers or non-book readers; and (d) book readers who are also library users, shown by arrow drawn to the library agency used. Only one case reported use of more than one library agency. In this case the more remote library agency used is indicated by dashes rather than by continuous lines.

On the work map concentric circles were drawn, with radii of three, five, and seven miles, around the library agencies involved: the county library headquarters in the center of the county, the five branch libraries and four book collections<sup>15</sup> of the county library system, and two independent local public libraries. The sample segments falling in whole or in part within three, five, or seven miles of a given library agency were then determined, and likewise the numbers of library users falling within the specified distance categories from the agency they reported using. Finally, by dividing number of library users by number of sample segments falling within a given distance of the library agency, a crude index of library agency "pulling power" was derived.

These data are presented in Table 2 for the library agencies arranged by size of trade center in which they are located. In classifying the sample segments which might have fallen in more than one distance—or size-of-trade-center—category, these rules were followed: (1) Each segment was classified in the lowest possible distance category. (2) Each segment was classified in the largest possible size-of-trade-center category. (3) If rules (1)

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.* It will be pointed out later that "the trading center visited and the hours which the library is open" are recognized by Hodgson as perhaps more important factors than distance taken by itself in accounting for the fact that he found only slightly over one farm family in four making use of available library facilities.

<sup>15</sup> One county library book collection is housed in an independent public library.

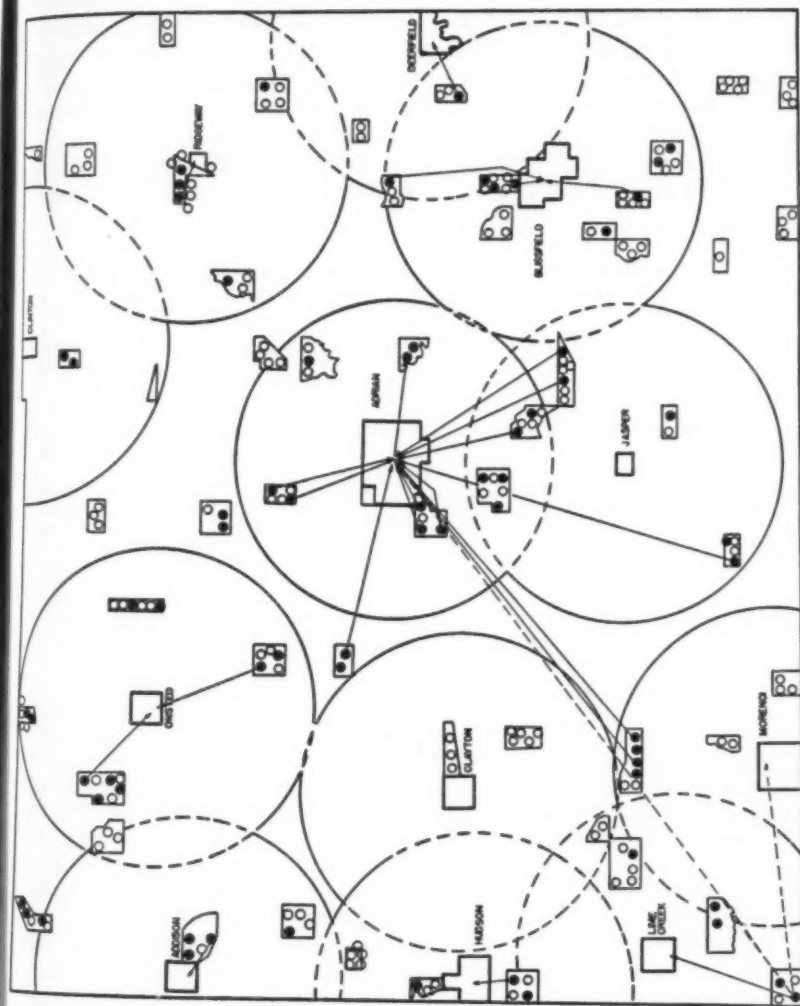


FIG. 1.—Locations of library agencies, areas within five-mile radius of each library agency, Master Sample segments with sample families designated as "non-book reader," "book reader, non-library user," and "book reader, library user," the library agencies used indicated by arrows, based on a sample of 205 rural families, Lenawee County, Michigan, 1946-47.

and (2) conflicted, distance classification was given the higher priority.

Figure 2, based on Table 2, Columns 5, 8, and 11, has been prepared to show graphically both the relationship of the "index" in size of trade center and the influence of distance on library agency pulling power in trade centers of differing sizes. Regardless of distance, the library agency located in the only trade center

and containing the headquarters of the county library system, is compared with the smaller trade centers containing branches and book collections. But for the other towns, including both those having a population of 1,000-2,500 and those with less than 1,000, the differences in drawing power are negligible.

This brings us to the second part of the hypothesis, namely that pulling power

TABLE 2  
NUMBERS OF SAMPLE SEGMENTS, NUMBERS OF LIBRARY-USING FAMILIES, AND INDEX OF LIBRARY AGENCY PULLING POWER, BY RADIAL DISTANCE FROM NEAREST LIBRARY AGENCY, BY SIZE OF TRADE CENTER CONTAINING LIBRARY AGENCY

SIZE OF TRADE CENTER CONTAINING LIBRARY AGENCY	NUMBER OF LIBRARY AGENCY TRADE CENTERS	RADIAL DISTANCE FROM LIBRARY AGENCY									TOTAL NUMBER OF LIBRARY-USING FAMILIES
		Under 3 Miles			Under 5 Miles			Under 7 Miles			
		Sample Segments	Library-Using Families	Index of Library Agency Pulling Power	Sample Segments	Library-Using Families	Index of Library Agency Pulling Power	Sample Segments	Library-Using Families	Index of Library Agency Pulling Power	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Over 2,500..	1	4	4	1.00	7	6	0.86	9	7	0.78	13†
1,000-2,500.	4‡	9	4	0.44	17	5	.29	20	5	.25	5
Under 1,000.	7	12	5	0.42	22	7	.32	23	7	.30	7
Totals...	12	25	13	0.52	46	18	0.39	52*	19	0.37	25

\* Two sample segments were over seven miles from nearest trade center (within the county) containing a library agency. These trade centers were intermediate in size.

† Total, 13, includes six families who travel six to fifteen miles to use the county library headquarters agency in Adrian (14,000 population and only trade center in county over 2,500). This means they travel three to ten miles farther for library service than would be necessary if the nearest library agency (branch or book collection) were used.

‡ One independent public library is included.

over 2,500 in population within the county has the highest index of pulling power. Pulling power diminishes, although in varying degrees, with distance for the library agencies in the trade centers, irrespective of size.

The first part of the hypothesis, that library agencies will vary in pulling power directly with size of trade center, appears to be true to a limited extent. It is definitely true when the county seat, Adrian, having a population of 14,000,

will vary inversely with distance. It can be seen from Figure 2 that the expected relationship is actually shown by the data for all three size categories of town population, although it is slightly more marked for the largest community than for the smaller places.

It must be conceded that, although size of trade center containing a library agency may in itself be an important factor in the library's pulling power, other significant variables should also be con-



sidered. For example, the hypothesis fails to make allowances for the numerous variations in characteristics of library agencies, which may or may not accompany variation in trade-center size. Among those variables are such factors as size and scope of book stock, numbers of new accessions, hours available for service, training and skill of agency personnel, and convenience and attractiveness of equipment and facilities for read-

County two farm families reported use of the main library in Logansport in place of the branch, although the distance to Logansport was ten miles and that to the branch but two and one-half. They said they used the main library because business took them to Logansport and the book collection was better. In Putnam County, where most farmers used McNabb as a trading center, only one farm family reported using the Magnolia collection, although several said they would if the hours of opening were different. . . . One family reported use of the branch in the town where a

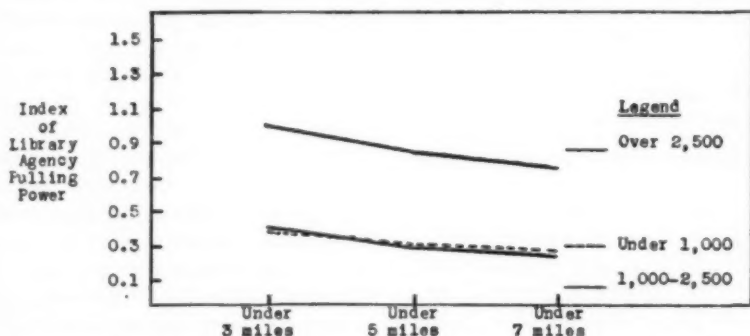


FIG. 2.—Index of library agency pulling power for library agencies in towns having populations over 2,500, between 1,000-2,500, and under 1,000, within specified radial distances.

ing. Unless the hypothesis were tested and found valid with these influences held constant or controlled, we can scarcely conclude that the factor responsible for the observed variations in pulling power is actually trade-center population or its accompanying services.

Hodgson, for example, states that the hours when the library is open and factors causing a given trade center to be regularly visited are important for library use.

Rural villages' residents can adjust themselves to local library opening hours more easily than can the farm people. Lucerne [Indiana, population, 215] and Magnolia [Illinois, population 300] people used the local library branch unless they made a special trip to some larger city. . . . The farm homes, however, show definite reactions to these two factors. In Cass

daughter went to school, although it was many miles farther away than either of the two nearest branches.<sup>16</sup>

It may be of interest to note the atypical educational backgrounds of two farm housewives who by-passed the library agencies closest at hand and went the greatest distance to obtain library service. One holds a Master's degree in Eng-

<sup>16</sup> *Op. cit.*, pp. 28-29. Chandler and Croteau (*op. cit.*, p. 107) also emphasize "the importance of the market area as a center for book distribution. . . ." But the plan of their study, unfortunately, permits only a discussion of proportions of library registrants, their age, and number or type of books read, in relation to distance from library or trade center. Their spot map of reader distribution (p. 105), for example, shows a heavy concentration close to the trade center, but does not show how many residents living equally close to the branch are nonreaders or, more accurately, non-library users.

lish; her family takes eleven magazines; she read thirty-five to forty books during the preceding year; and she takes an active role in a number of organizations, including the local Extension Club, a well-known sorority, and the local County Federation of Women's Clubs. The other is a graduate of the Chicago Academy of Fine Arts and at one time was a teacher of art in a local college. This is perhaps suggestive of the types of factors which may reduce the importance of dis-

TABLE 3

NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF BOOK-READING RESPONDENTS AND NON-BOOK-READING RESPONDENTS BY REPORTED (HIGHWAY) DISTANCE FROM NEAREST LIBRARY AGENCY

DISTANCE	TOTAL		BOOK READERS		NONREADERS	
	Num-ber	Per-cent-age	Num-ber	Per-cent-age	Num-ber	Per-cent-age
2.9 miles or less.....	47	100	18	38.3	29	61.7
3-4.9 miles..	57	100	23	40.3	34	59.6
5-6.9 miles..	62	100	13	21.0	49	79.0
7 miles and over.....	39	100	12	30.8	27	69.2
Total....	205	100	66	32.2	139	67.8

tance when farm people go after the library service they want.

The third hypothesis to be considered deals with readers of books, whether or not they reported library use. The hypothesis is that *the proportion of book-reading respondents will decline with distance from the nearest library agency*. In Table 3 the data on this point are presented. (See also Figure 1.) It will be seen that the proportion of book-reading respondents fluctuates considerably among the four distance categories. On the basis of these data it could hardly be claimed that the hypothesis was con-

firmed. If the data are divided into two distance categories, however, those less than five miles from the nearest library agency and those five miles or over from the nearest library agency, a significant difference appears. Thirty-nine per cent of the 104 respondents in the shorter distance category are reported as book readers, while only 25 per cent of the 101 living at a greater distance are book readers. This difference of 14 per cent is statistically significant, and therefore it may safely be said that book readers are found in higher proportions among respondents living under five miles from their nearest library agency than among those living over five miles from a library.

The final hypothesis to be examined is that *proportion of book-reading respondents will vary directly with size of nearest trade center containing a library agency*. Table 4 presents the relevant data.<sup>17</sup> (See Figure 1.) There are fifteen book readers among the thirty-one respondents whose nearest trade center is a place of 2,500 or over. Slightly less than one-third of those whose nearest trade center is under 1,000 are book readers. Only one-fourth of those living nearest to intermediate-sized centers are book readers. Of the three possible comparisons between proportions of library users, the only one with statistical significance is that between the figures for larger villages (1,000-2,500) and for the one small city. This difference is 23 per cent and would be expected to appear by chance only five times or less in one hundred similar samples.

It will be remembered that Table 2 showed the pulling power of the larger villages to be less than that of the sole

<sup>17</sup> The trade centers falling in the respective population categories are as follows: 2,500 and over, Adrian; 1,000-2,500, Blissfield, Clinton, Hudson, and Morenci; under 1,000, Addison, Clayton, Deerfield, Jasper, Lime Creek, Onsted, and Ridgeway.

city or that of the smaller villages. These two findings appear to be mutually supporting; they emphasize the importance for rural families of proximity to the city both for book reading and for library use, the intermediate position of the small village in this regard, and the weak position of the larger village. The next question, obviously, is: Why should places of 1,000 to 2,500 be in this position? Data available do not permit a confident an-

A number of other hypotheses were tried, but since results were uniformly negative, the data are not presented. These involved such assumptions as the following: that the typical magazines read would vary with distance from the nearest trade center; that the subject-matter range of magazines, or numbers of types, would show a similar spatial distribution; likewise for typical books, and range of types of books read.

TABLE 4

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGES OF BOOK-READING RESPONDENTS AND NON-BOOK-READING RESPONDENTS, BY SIZE OF NEAREST\* TRADE CENTERS CONTAINING A LIBRARY AGENCY

TYPE OF RESPONDENT	TOTALS		SIZE OF NEAREST TRADE CENTER CONTAINING A LIBRARY AGENCY					
			2,500 and Over		1,000-2,500		Under 1,000	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Book readers.....	66	32.2	15	48	16	25.0	35	31.8
Non-book readers..	139	67.8	16	52	48	75.0	75	68.2
Totals.....	205	100.0	31	100	64	100.0	110	100.0

\* Nearest in terms of radial distance.

swer on this point. But one incidental consideration may have an important bearing. Three of the four larger villages are located on the county boundaries, and, therefore, are not adequately represented by a strictly county sample, whereas the county seat city, being practically in the center of the county, and the smaller villages (only two out of the seven are on the county borders), having smaller trade areas, are fairly well represented by such a sample. What is needed, accordingly, is an ecological analysis, not in terms of simple distance, but in relation to complete trade-center or realistic community areas. Such an analysis should clarify the relationships which at this point are ambiguous.<sup>18</sup>

#### SUMMARY AND EVALUATION

Four hypotheses have been presented and tested, each based on the assumption that spatial distance between respondents and nearest library agency or trade center is a significant factor in the distribution of reading or library use. The data of this study failed to show any very marked relationship of this type, even though some statistically significant tendencies were revealed.

<sup>18</sup> A map showing high-school-attendance areas in Lenawee County for 1929-32 and 1941-42, kindly prepared by Professor John F. Thaden for the purposes of this study, clearly shows the county overlap (and, in one case, state overlap) of the four larger villages, particularly of the three located on the boundaries of the county. The same is true of the two smaller villages on the county margins.

The final question is: What do such largely negative findings mean? Do they have any significant implications for sociologists in the way of ecological theory? It seems to us that these findings emphasize the degree to which automobiles, good highways, and mechanization generally have overcome for farm families in the type of area under consideration their earlier limitations of distance and spatial isolation. Thus, one of the fundamental factors which formerly operated to differentiate the farm family psycho-socially from nonfarm families is shown currently to be of minor importance.

The rural library administrator may well ask what the real problem is if distance is not the factor to be overcome in

facilitating reading and library use. Subsequent phases of the research project discussed above, and regarding which the present paper is only a first report, should help on this point. At this stage it is impossible to say whether the low proportion of library users is due mainly to certain cultural, attitudinal, and similar characteristics of the local population or to the nature of limitations of available library service in the area. At any rate, given a distribution of library agencies such as that found in Lenawee County, Michigan, improvement of library service probably should be sought in directions other than bringing library agencies physically closer to their potential publics.

## COMMENTARY AND CRITICISM

LOGAN WILSON

MR. SCHULER and Mr. Turbeville have rendered a useful service in calling attention to an important mode of behavior which, as they say, has been too largely neglected by sociologists. Although sociological inquiry into "the role of reading in the life and activities of the people" should hardly require justification as a task, the authors have pointed out the need for such research, and especially so in view of the prospect of certain federal legislation. Their Introduction suggests many interesting leads which sociologists would do well to follow up.

In calling attention to reading habits as a field of inquiry, however, the authors have neglected to mention important work which has been done by librarians and others, and which might be read with profit by sociologists launching investigations in this area. For example, there is L. R. Wilson's *Geography of*

*Reading*,<sup>1</sup> which deals at some length with the accessibility of public libraries and with library use as related to geography and population distribution. A number of studies, such as the Queens Borough Public Library study, *Woodside Does Read!*<sup>2</sup> and Haygood's *Who Uses the Public Library; a Survey of the Patrons of . . . the New York Public Library*,<sup>3</sup> afford data for illuminating contrasts and comparisons between behavior observed by others in urban areas and what the present authors have found in a rural area. In addition, there are such well-known monographs as Douglas Waples' and others' *What Reading Does to People*<sup>4</sup> and Leon Carnovsky's "A Study of the

<sup>1</sup> Chicago: American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1938.

<sup>2</sup> Jamaica, N.Y.: Queens Borough Public Library, 1935.

<sup>3</sup> Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938.

<sup>4</sup> Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940.

Relationship between Reading Interest and Actual Reading."<sup>5</sup> There must be also a vast amount of information on the sale of books and the circulation of magazines among various income and occupational groups, geographic areas, and so on, in the hands of advertising agencies, circulation audit bureaus, and other commercial organizations.

The present authors are probably safe in stating that for a "professedly democratic society there is too little reliable information on the actual reading behavior of large sections of the population, the consequences of that reading, and the attitudes, interests, opinions, information, and misinformation which accompany, cause, or result from it." Space limitations no doubt prevented specific reference to relevant works which the authors covered as a background preparation for this project. Since there is not even a footnote mention of leading works by specialists outside of sociology, the criticism can be made that the Introduction would serve a more useful purpose for the uninformed but interested reader if some of these were cited.

The authors have noted that if the values of public library service are to "be studied and any resulting conclusions reported to the Nation," more will be required than mere figures on salaries paid to librarians, numbers of registered borrowers, and numbers of books circulated. They point specifically to the opportunity and obligation of the sociologist to apply his analytical procedures to concrete situations and to the need for not-too-complicated conceptions and measures of availability, adequacy, and utilization of library service which at the same time will be different from those employed by legislators, librarians, and lay people. They have described the

Lenawee County Library Research Project as illustrating some possible approaches.

It seems to me that the Project as broadly described by the authors actually involves very little that is distinctly sociological in its approach. I examined the schedule used in the inquiry and have no particular criticism to make of it as such, except that it is the kind of questionnaire a thoughtful librarian or legislator might have drawn up. It is true that the sampling procedure was more adequately worked out than it would have been by a library or a legislative group, but the schedule, sampling, and interviewing techniques are all of the familiar sort not likely to lead to the authors' conclusions that "availability, adequacy, and use as conceived and studied by the sociologist are likely to be different from availability, adequacy, and use as defined by legislators, librarians, or lay people." In short, with reference to the whole rather ambitious project of intensive county study, it appears that the present contribution can form only a very limited part of what the investigators have in view.

The authors are to be commended for the precision of their methods in dealing with the central concern of the present paper, namely the ecological factors. Not only is their sampling procedure better than that of any other study of this sort, but also they set forth specific hypotheses to be tested. Let us now review these hypotheses and the results of their testing. Concerning their first hypothesis, that "*the greater the road distance between open-country dwellers and the nearest library agency, the smaller will be the proportion of library users*," they state that "the data of this study do not confirm it without qualification, and, second, that there is a slight tendency for library use

<sup>5</sup> *Library Quarterly*, IV (1934), 76-110.



to be inversely related to distance from the library agency." The second hypothesis to be tested, that "*the pulling power of library agencies will vary directly with size of trade center in which they are located and inversely with distance*" resulted in several conclusions. The first part of the hypothesis, that library agencies will vary in pulling power directly with size of trade center, appeared to be true to a limited extent. The second part of the hypothesis, that pulling power will vary inversely with distance, was found to hold within limits for library agencies in trade centers over 1,000 but not for those below 1,000. The third hypothesis was that "*the proportion of book-reading respondents will decline with distance from the nearest library agency.*" There was no clear-cut confirmation of this hypothesis when four distance categories were used, but there was a significant difference for two categories (less than and more than five miles from nearest library agency). The fourth hypothesis was that the "*proportion of book-reading respondents will vary directly with size of nearest trade center containing a library agency.*" It will be remembered that the investigators found the highest proportion of book-readers drawn to the sole city, the next highest to the smaller villages, and the lowest proportion to the larger villages. Here again there was no pronounced, uniform relationship. In some instances, of course, there were too few cases to yield any statistically significant results in any event, but on the whole the inconclusiveness of the findings appears to indicate that the

really important factors affecting reading habits could not be discovered by the ecological methods employed here, or perhaps by any ecological concepts.

As the authors acknowledge, "What is needed, accordingly, is an ecological analysis, not in terms of simple distance, but in relation to complete trade-center or realistic community areas." Further, they state, "It seems to us that these findings emphasize the degree to which automobiles, good highways, and mechanization generally have overcome for farm families in the type of area under consideration their earlier limitations of distance and spatial isolation. Thus, one of the fundamental factors which formerly operated to differentiate the farm family psycho-socially from nonfarm families is shown currently to be of minor importance."

Although the findings of Mr. Schuler and Mr. Turbeville may be disappointing to those ecologists who expected some clear-cut relationship to emerge between library usage and physical distance, the honest and unspectacular inconclusiveness of this study demonstrates how carefully conceived and candidly set forth research may have far-reaching practicable implications. Subsequent research may reveal those cultural, attitudinal, and other characteristics which are really operative in establishing reading habits, but meantime a needless and wasteful expenditure of public money can be saved in working from false assumptions about why certain segments of the population make little use of public libraries.

## SOME RECOLLECTIONS OF WILLIAM LAWRENCE CLEMENTS AND THE FORMATION OF HIS LIBRARY<sup>1</sup>

WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP

ONE morning in mid-April of 1915 there appeared in my office in the Library of Congress a tall, distinguished-looking man of slender build, massive shoulders, greying hair, and charming manner. He introduced himself as William L. Clements, of Bay City, one of the Regents of the University of Michigan. He told me that, following accounts of a recent visit by Dr. L. L. Hubbard and Mr. Junius E. Beal,<sup>2</sup> he was interested to see for himself the Library of Congress and more particularly its rare books and manuscripts. Before our conversation had developed to the point of how much he really wanted to see, Dr. Putnam telephoned me that he had in his office Father Burns of the Holy Cross order and the President of Notre Dame University whom he wished to have shown about the Library. So I asked Mr. Clements to join the party, presented him hurriedly to Dr. Putnam and the two clerical gentlemen, and we proceeded to make the round trip customarily laid out for distinguished visitors. But it did not develop quite on the usual pattern. Amid pleasant exchanges between the representatives of the two universities—chiefly about football, if my memory serves me—there came searching inquiries as to how the Library of Congress cared for its book rarities, how great were its holdings of important manuscripts, whether certain notable Americana were to be found in the Li-

brary, and, in general, what was my own attitude toward the care and consultation of these treasures intrusted (in great part at that period) to the superintendent of the Reading Room. In fact, Father Burns sensed that the visit was taking on a somewhat technical aspect and excused himself and his companion when we reached the Rare Book Section. Here Mr. Clements kept me for a time, asking to see certain books which, it developed, he knew were there. Declining to remain for lunch at the Round Table, he departed after a couple of hours' stay, leaving behind him a very vivid impression of competence in knowledge of Americana and of familiarity with the ways of libraries. Before he left, he told me he was coming back to Washington in late June and would call again. He hinted rather broadly that there might be a vacancy at Ann Arbor in the post of librarian of the University, but said nothing more.

When he left I was curious enough to seek information about him from friends in Washington, who could tell me only that Mr. Clements was becoming known as a collector of great skill and ability in the field of Americana. I thought little more about the visit. In fact, in the pressure of daily work there was but little time for speculation. Late in June without any previous warning Mr. Clements appeared again in my office, asked for a private interview, and offered me, on behalf of the Regents and President Hutchins, the post of librarian of the University of Michigan, my alma mater.

<sup>1</sup> An address delivered at the William L. Clements Library, April 1, 1941.

<sup>2</sup> Regents of the University of Michigan.

Naturally, I was pleased and very much surprised. He told me Mr. Koch was very far from well and was retiring from the position of librarian. I remember that I insisted that he should talk to Dr. Putnam. He demurred—said that in business when you stole a man from another firm, you kept quiet about it until the agreement was made. But he acknowledged that Dr. Hutchins had told him he ought to call on Putnam, and so he did. Dr. Putnam has since told me about the interview with some amusement. The result was that I left the Library of Congress for Michigan in September of 1915.

Before I had been two days in Ann Arbor, Mr. Clements was in my office again. We had met briefly during a hasty visit in August to discuss plans for the new library building—an occasion which gave me my first glimpse of two men, each of whom came to have a great place in my affections, Robert Mark Wenley and Albert Kahn. But now in September there was time for a talk between the chairman of the Library Committee of the Regents and the librarian, a long, frank talk, which went into a good deal of ancient history, ranged from his boyhood in Ann Arbor and his studies there to what I soon discovered to be his absorbing interest, his own library of American history, and ended on a promise of active support of a program of development for the University libraries. But that talk had another purpose. Quite unknown to me was the ill-feeling which had grown up between Professor Demmon, chairman of the Library Committee, and my predecessor. But it had not escaped Mr. Clements. His chief purpose at that moment was to bring us together and to insure a harmonious working policy. That very night the three of us met and sat long over library problems. That interview, so wisely arranged

by Mr. Clements, laid the foundation for a successful growth of the Library. In fact, for the remaining five years of his life Professor Demmon was an enthusiastic supporter of, first, the building program and, later, the plans for an enlarged service. And the basis for that friendly support was Mr. Clements' suggestion to Professor Demmon that he retire from the Library Committee, leaving to younger men that rather onerous responsibility. That we always agreed could not be said, but there was no official friction because there were no official relations.

If I have dwelt at some length on these first impressions, it is because they reveal both the kindness and the wisdom of Mr. Clements. He could easily have avoided the trouble he took; President Hutchins would have acted wisely on his own initiative without doubt. But that was not Mr. Clements' way. Having been instrumental in the choice and appointment of a new man, he did not leave him to fumble and grope his way. He took pains to see that the path was made clear for him and that he was given support and guidance.

For almost twenty years thereafter I had the benefit of that support and guidance. Surely few librarians have been so fortunate as I in having on the committee of the board to whom I was directly responsible two such men as Dr. Hubbard and Mr. Clements. They were both collectors of note. Neither required any explanation of bibliographic or administrative problems. One could be sure of a complete understanding on matters which are not esoteric but which sound complicated and possibly obscure to laymen. So long as Mr. Clements was chairman of the Library Committee of the Regents—a committee, it may be remarked, which was continued up to his retirement from the board, despite the fact that it ran



counter to the general plan of the Regents' organization—so long then as Clements was chairman, the librarian was sure not only of highly intelligent and informed support but of canny advice as to what, when, and how to press for appropriations. In those earlier days the librarian and the chairman of the Regents' Committee on the Library used to appear together before the Finance and the Salaries committees at the annual budget hearings. I never had any trouble at these meetings because by far the most influential member of the board presented all my requests for me. Seldom did I say a word, save to answer questions. There was no need. Not that we always got all we asked, or that I always got into the estimates all I was eager to obtain. In preliminary discussions, either at Ann Arbor or at Bay City, an agreement was reached between the two of us as to what it was wise to ask for. And then Mr. Clements did the asking. How much the University of Michigan today owes to his devoted services in developing both a great library and a great general building program few realize. It is fitting that we honor his memory for both achievements. The General Library in its present service to the University is in large part the child of his thinking and planning. And one has only to look over the campus to see the fruits of his equally long and priceless service as chairman of the Regents' Committee on Plant and Equipment.

But it is the founder of the William Lawrence Clements Library of American History that we chiefly honor in this article. Though few in Washington in 1915 knew of him as a collector, in New York and Boston he was already well known to bookmen and to dealers, as he was also known to the world of industry and banking. I shall never forget my first

sight of his library in his house in Bay City in November of 1915. It was always hard to make good train connections for Bay City from Ann Arbor. I remember well the tedious waits in stations and the equally slow and tedious train ride. He met me at the Bay City station and drove me to the beautiful home Albert Kahn had built for him. We arrived barely in time for dinner. And then after dinner we went to the library. Mrs. Clements dryly remarked she had better say, "Good night," for she was sure she would see no more of me that evening. Then began the revelation to my eager eyes of a truly great library of Americana. It was not so large as the library now housed in the Clements Library building, for much has been added through the twenty-five years since that day. But such precious books as were shown me fairly took my breath away. I had expected to find a good collection, but the modesty of my host had not led me to suppose that one of the really great Americana collections of the world was there in the fireproof house in Bay City. We sat far into the night. Mrs. Clements was entirely correct. The experience was overwhelming. I had had under my care in the Library of Congress a fairly strong collection of Americana. I had seen in Princeton through Mr. Junius Morgan many a book destined for the elder Morgan's library in New York. I had known Wilberforce Eames and George Watson Cole rather well and had listened in some awe to their intimate wrangles over "points" and "condition" of certain books belonging to Henry Huntington and to the Lenox Library. In fact, I rather fancied that I knew a good deal about libraries and something about Americana. But in ten minutes I realized that I was in the presence of both a master and a masterly collection. That

first impression grew and grew into a profound respect, a genuine admiration, and a sincere affection.

We are perhaps too near to him to make a critical and objective appraisal of his method of gathering his library. What most impressed me at my first sight of it and in the first of many intimate talks on the books themselves was the extraordinary scholarship and critical judgment shown in the selection of materials. That impression grew with the years. William Clements was a great scholar in the field of the discovery and colonization periods of American history and, more particularly, of the American Revolution. His criterion for determining purchase was not rarity, price, or reputation as a show-piece, but the intrinsic value of the book itself. Many a time I have heard him reject a tempting offer of a book much lauded as "rare" or as a "collector's item" with the single phrase, "It has little historic significance." Unlike most collectors, he read his books and appraised diligently and with unusual insight their real value as witnesses to the history of this land. He insisted with all a collector's devotion on condition, completeness, binding, and "points." He would never buy a "cripple"—at least knowingly. Singularly modest and slow to assert his judgment, he did not for a moment hesitate to trust it in deciding on purchases. He had an instinct for real values—as well as a businessman's shrewdness in estimating prices. He knew Justin Winsor's *Narrative and Critical History* through and through. Tyler's two great books were so familiar to him that he could quote from memory Tyler's judgment on minor points of literary history. The extensive pamphlet literature of the American Revolution he knew thoroughly—and he knew not only what pamphlets were rare and costly but,

much more important, what titles had real value as evidence of public opinion. Slowly I came to realize that one might take Clements' judgment on these matters as almost final. Working alone in his library at Bay City, he had acquired a competent judgment on the materials of American history which few men of our time have equaled. If I seem to insist on this phase of his collecting with some emphasis, it is because I feel we have not done enough honor to the remarkable scholarship which he developed in the process of gathering this library.

Mr. Clements was extremely sensitive to criticism, and especially to criticism from men whose judgment he respected. He hesitated long about giving his library to the University because he was not sure that it would be valued and cared for as it deserved. He was really sorely hurt by a remark of a distinguished historian, long a professor at Michigan, that five dollars was enough to pay for any old book. When I came to Michigan in the summer of 1915, he was still smarting under the implied rebuke in this remark which had been aimed directly at him. He was really shaken by this chance phrase in his resolution to give his library to the University. And even up to the final transfer of the books from Bay City to Ann Arbor, he had periods of doubt and hesitation. I do not, however, believe he ever really faltered in his love of his treasures and in his determination to intrust them to his alma mater. But he was perhaps unduly considerate of even the lightly spoken criticism of university men. He could cope with dealers—and very shrewdly too—but he was extremely sensitive to the criticism of men whom he regarded as experts, never dreaming that he had become far more expert in his own field than they.

That first visit to Bay City was fol-

lowed by many more. Almost at once a lively correspondence began between us, chiefly about books offered to him or sought by him. The files in my office are crowded with letters from him and with copies of my replies. He bought a great many books through me, in order not to appear too much in the market for the lesser items. He got the Regents to empower me as university librarian to act for him, buying, receiving, and transferring to Bay City books which he paid for—this on the ground of their ultimate destination in this Library. He frequently telephoned to me about auction bids, which he always placed through agents, occasionally through me, but not often. I made a number of trips with him to New York to attend important sales. I recall that when he was considering buying the Shelburne Papers—at a London auction—he cabled for my advice. As I was in camp on Douglas Lake in northern Michigan, where the cable message was forwarded to me, and as I had absolutely no means of knowing the extent and nature of the papers offered, I could only reply that I was sure they were worth getting—if he thought so. This intimate association is one of my happiest memories. We even went camping and fishing together in Georgian Bay on two successive summers, and I have a vivid memory of his insisting on a cold plunge the first thing in the morning in those chilly waters—a very short plunge it proved to be. And I can see him yet looking at a very fine catch of black bass and saying, "Well, there's almost as much satisfaction in catching those fish as in beating Henry E. Huntington in capturing a book."

Mr. Clements' method may be well illustrated by his purchase of the General Nathaniel Greene papers. He knew that Joseph Sabin had them and that he was

occasionally selling a few important Greene letters as autographs. He had bought from Sabin a good many very valuable books which had belonged to Mr. Havermeyer who had owned the Greene papers. Finally, after many efforts, he got Mr. Sabin to consent to have the papers examined, and he chose me to examine them. I saw them in a New York safety deposit company's vaults and reported at some length on them, urging their purchase. But Sabin was obdurate in asking much more than Mr. Clements thought they were worth. The negotiations dragged on. Finally, at a dinner in New York the agreement was made, and the precious manuscripts were brought to Bay City. Patience, kindness, and really generous terms brought to this library a collection which was already on the way to dispersal. The negotiations took at least two years. But both parties were satisfied in the end. The same care, patience, and generosity were shown in the later negotiations which secured the Clinton, Germaine, and Gage papers. To his agents in these transactions Mr. Clements was more than generous. Once in a while I remonstrated. But he countered by quoting David Harum's remark about letting the other fellow make a dollar or two now and then—if you wanted to keep on doing business with him. No one can say that the donor of the Clements Library ever took advantage of a dealer or of a collector. Indeed, the foundation of the Library was a purchase really made to help out a friend fallen on evil days. And while insistent on a fair price and while a very shrewd judge of values, Mr. Clements erred on the side of generosity in gathering the books which are his monument.

He gave much thought to the "gift-agreement" between himself and the

Regents, drafting it many times and simplifying it as his work on it went on. I recall one hot evening in July at the old Michigan Union at which he, Dr. Hubbard, and I sat far into the night discussing the way such a library should be conducted. That was at least four years before the agreement was finally drafted and executed. The discussion was a classic one, Regent Hubbard holding out for few or no conditions, Mr. Clements expressing with vigor his fears that such a collection might be misused and its purposes defeated. In the end they came to substantial agreement, and the final contract took much the form decided on that night. In order to acquaint the Regents with the work and purposes of a library of Americana, he arranged a tour of the entire board with President Hutchins, Secretary Smith, Professor Van Tyne, and myself to Boston, Providence, New Haven, and New York. It was a pretty stiff dose for some of the Regents. I recall Regent Murfin's remark that he had not had to meet so many — highbrows in a dog's age. But the visits to the Harvard Treasure Room, the Massachusetts Historical Society, the Boston Public Library, the John Carter Brown Library, the Elizabethan Club at Yale, the Hispanic Society's Library and the Grolier Club in New York did much to pave the way for an understanding of the functions and possibilities of such a library as this. Incidentally, I may be permitted to recall the interesting encounter between Professor Charles Haskins of Harvard and the Regents and Worthington Ford's luncheon to the party at the Union Club in Boston. At their first meeting all possibility of Haskins becoming Hutchins' successor disappeared, and at the luncheon Mr. Ford delivered a monologue on source material which perhaps explained Regent Murfin's profane characterization.

I might dwell much longer on the care, the thought, the critical appraisal, the devotion of long years which Mr. Clements lavished on his gift to the University. While he worked for many years alone, he later drew on the knowledge and skill of many men—George Parker Winship, Henry N. Stevens, Lathrop Harper, Randolph Adams, and many others. With the erection of the William M. Clements Library building under his own eye and at his sole expense, and with the transfer of the books to it, the collection became one of the greatest public libraries of Americana. The Americana portion of the great library of Henry Vignaud supplied in large part the critical apparatus and the more modern works which (from a working scholar's point of view) had been decidedly lacking. Here he watched its growth and development, participating in its affairs, adding to it copiously both books and priceless manuscript collections, guiding the deliberations of the Committee of Management on both purchases and policies, and aiding day by day in its change from a private to a public collection. That change was not effected without some wrenches and some feeling. When you have lived with a collection twenty-five years, it is not easy to turn it over to other men to manage. But the change was made with his active help and his entire approval.

In closing these perhaps too personal recollections I may be permitted to quote a letter written me by Mr. Clements on his return to America after a trip to Europe in 1927.

NEW YORK, Oct. 5, 1927

MY DEAR MR. BISHOP:

Upon my arrival at the dock late last night I received your very kind and thoughtful message. I appreciate, in full measure, your cooperation for the high uses of the Library and

your valuation of the materials I have been trying to assemble. I suppose anybody who tries to do anything which in *his* opinion seems well worth while places himself before others, not interested, in the attitude of a fanatic. Time and that alone will demonstrate whether Wisdom was used. At a sacrifice of over half my fortune, I have tried to establish at Michigan a research laboratory which as mortal effort goes, will ever be of use and will give the University renown. And to you, Sir, much of that ambition is due. How much my efforts at this time may have added to those already made, I can not tell—a critical study of the Germaine Manuscripts will determine that. Suffice it to say I had rather a difficult job, with a difficult woman who frequently changed her mind, and finally when a price was named, with a full determination (after examination) that we just must have these interlocking papers, I

hardly dared negotiate further, but accepted, with alacrity, her price put upon them, which was much higher than Mr. Stevens' valuation. But when I found, for illustration of his valuation, that seven good letters and some long ones of Wolfe, the hero of Quebec, were appraised at \$300.00, I thrust aside his judgement in this day of greed in such materials, and rather used my own judgement which is quite as likely to be far off.

Well, more about this affair when I see you. I am returning to Bay City tomorrow after I get settled on my feet, for on my return, six boisterous days I put in, and I am a poor sailor. . . . I hope you and Mrs. Bishop are well, and with best wishes, I am

Very truly,

W. L. CLEMENTS



## THE STATUS OF STATE DOCUMENT BIBLIOGRAPHY

GWENDOLYN LLOYD

THE collection and preservation of official publications of the state governments have received too little attention until recent years, and the provision of adequate bibliographical records of state publications has been given even less. This condition has existed despite the fact that historians and research scholars have long been aware of the value of federal, state, and local official publications as primary and secondary source material.

The importance of building up collections of state documents in state libraries was first stressed in 1889 at the organization meeting of the association now known as the National Association of State Libraries. Since that date the Association has made a number of attempts to improve the system of exchange and distribution of state documents in order to facilitate systematic collection.<sup>1</sup>

These efforts did not improve document collections materially, for a report made before the House of Representatives, May 26, 1900, on the preservation of archives and public records in the states includes the following statement:

Hardly a state possesses at present complete files, either in manuscript, or in print, of its own records. Some of the records appear never to have been systematically preserved. Some have been lost. Some are in the possession of other states or of the National Government. Large portions still exist in manuscript only, while others, the originals of which have dis-

appeared, are printed in volumes now scarce and virtually impossible of replacement.<sup>2</sup>

A similar statement might still be made today, although the increasing attention given to the collection and preservation of documents since the turn of the century has resulted in definite improvement.

Since the first World War, in particular, the social scientists have realized that research in the primary source materials of official government publications is essential for a proper understanding of present-day social problems. The growth in scope and complexity of governmental administration and the enriched content of state publications resulting from increased research activities on the part of governmental agencies have added a new significance to the official publications of the states in the last three decades.

Realizing that the lack of systematic collection and preservation of document material and the scarcity of document bibliographies placed great obstacles in the way of research scholars attempting to locate and use these primary source materials, the Social Science Research Council launched the State Document Center Plan in 1929-30 under the direction of its Committee on Public Administration. This was a part of its program for encouraging systematic and effective activities on the part of libraries in the

<sup>1</sup> A. F. Kuhlman, "A Proposal To Modify the System of Exchange and Distribution of State Publications in Certain States," in *Public Documents . . . 1934*, ed. by A.L.A. Committee on Public Documents (Chicago: American Library Association, 1935), pp. 58-67.

<sup>2</sup> U.S. Congress, House, *Perpetuation and Preservation of the Archives and Public Records of the Several States and Territories and of the United States* (H.R. Report 1767 [56th Cong., 1st sess.], May 26, 1900), p. 3.



collection and preservation of primary source materials in the social sciences.<sup>3</sup>

Under this plan, one or more libraries in each state agreed to secure and maintain as complete files as possible of the public documents of their respective states. Whenever possible, libraries were chosen where good document collections already existed. In 1932 the responsibility for the general supervision and operation of the plan was transferred to the Committee on Public Documents of the American Library Association.<sup>4</sup> This new emphasis on the importance of state publications as source materials has resulted in greater efforts on the part of libraries to meet the demand for adequate collections.

The necessity for the preparation of bibliographies and check lists to make the documents more accessible has been urged by Dr. A. F. Kuhlman for a number of years. Although such bibliographies were compiled for some states already, in 1935 he was still emphasizing the need for more effective bibliographic aids if state publications were to play the role they should in view of the larger recognition of their value.<sup>5</sup> Mr. Wilcox' report on the State Document Center Plan made in 1938 also pointed out that the lack of state document bibliographies handicapped the program of document collection.<sup>6</sup> With the exception of the bibliographies of individual states which have been compiled in the past two

decades, existing bibliographies have generally proved inadequate as practical working tools.

The Public Archives Commission, established by the American Historical Association in 1899,<sup>7</sup> made one of the pioneer attempts in the field of state document bibliography. Although the most significant achievement of the Commission was probably the survey of the archives in the states and territories, one of the bibliographical projects of the Commission concerned the listing of state publications. Preparation of lists of the published documents of the states was begun, but in 1908 it was reported that "owing to the magnitude of the task and to several practical difficulties it has been decided by the Commission not to press this work at present."<sup>8</sup>

The bibliographies of statute law of Alabama, Arkansas, and Florida, compiled by T. L. Cole, which were issued in the *Publications* of the Southern History Association for 1897, and R. R. Bowker's *State Publications*<sup>9</sup> represent early efforts in the field of state document bibliography. Mr. Bowker's list, arranged by state, includes documents up to 1900 and in some instances for a few years beyond. Owing to difficulties with incomplete files and indifferent state officials the list is not at all complete.

The *Monthly Check-List of State Publications*, inaugurated in January, 1910, by the Library of Congress, is a record of the accessions of state documents in the Library of Congress and has filled the need for a list of currently published state documents. However, due to inadequate sys-

<sup>3</sup> A. F. Kuhlman, "Preserving Social Science Source Materials," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXVII (1933), 128-32.

<sup>4</sup> J. K. Wilcox, "The State Document Center Plan: Report and Recommendations," *Public documents . . . 1938* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1938), p. 234.

<sup>5</sup> "The Need for a Comprehensive Check-List Bibliography of American State Publications," *Library Quarterly*, V (1935), 31-35.

<sup>6</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 238.

<sup>7</sup> American Historical Association, *Annual Report, 1900* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1901), II, 9.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, 1908, I, 254.

<sup>9</sup> New York: Office of the Publisher's Weekly, 1899-1908. 4 vols.

tems for distribution in many states, the Library of Congress fails to receive many documents, and its *Check-List* is consequently incomplete. Issued monthly, with no cumulation, its arrangement makes it impractical to use as a means of inventorying holdings.

The check lists of early imprints in some states which were issued by the Historical Records Survey under the supervision of Mr. Douglas McMurtrie assist in the identification and location of early state publications. However, the chronological arrangement and the fact that state documents are not separated from other imprints render the use of these lists as bibliographies of state documents rather difficult.<sup>10</sup>

The series, "Bibliographies of American Imprints," the first volume of which was published in 1947<sup>11</sup> under the auspices of the Bibliographical Society of America, is based upon the reports of the American Imprints Inventory supplemented by special research. Again, however, the listing of imprints is chronological with no separation of state documents from other imprints.

There have been various bibliographies of publications of the several states relating to specific subjects, such as the *Check List of State Aeronautical Publications* published by the Library of Congress Division of Aeronautics in 1942. Among check lists of certain categories of public documents of the states, the following publications of the National Association of State Libraries are noteworthy: *Check List of Session Laws* (1936) and *Supplement* (1941); *Check List of Statutes* (1937); *Check List of Leg-*

*islative Journals* (1938) and *Supplement* (1943); and the new *Collected Public Documents of the States—a Check List* (1947).

In the 1930's, Dr. Kuhlman listed the existing bibliographies of state publications and pointed out the inadequacies of most of them as bibliographic tools for use in document collection or for the use of research scholars.<sup>12</sup> The most recent cumulated bibliography of bibliographies and check lists of state publications is that included in the *Manual on the Use of State Publications*, edited by Mr. Wilcox.<sup>13</sup> Published in 1940, this bibliography is a compilation of the items included in various lists of state documents bibliographies, omitting those check lists which included publications of one department or agency only. This compilation is supplemented by four lists of "Guides and Aids to Public Documents" compiled by Mr. Wilcox and published in issues of *Special Libraries* in 1940, 1942, 1944, and 1945.<sup>14</sup> Each list includes a section on state document guides, aids, and bibliographies.

Since the publication of Mr. Wilcox' cumulated bibliography in 1940 there has been some work in the field of state document bibliography, but most of this has been in the field of subject or functional type of state document bibliography. Mr. Wilcox' articles in *Special Libraries* include relatively few entries for comprehensive bibliographies or serial check

<sup>10</sup> *Op. cit.*, *Library Quarterly*, V (1935), 31-58; "The Need for a Checklist-Bibliography of State Publications," *Public Documents . . . 1933* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1934), pp. 65-80.

<sup>11</sup> Chicago: American Library Association, 1940. Pp. 75-99.

<sup>12</sup> "Aids to Public Document Use since 1937," *Special Libraries*, XXXI, 389-95; "Guides and Aids to Public Documents, 1941," *ibid.*, XXXIII, 79-84, 124-26; "New Guides and Aids to Public Documents, 1942-43," *ibid.*, XXXV, 55-59; "New Guides and Aids to Public Documents, 1944," *ibid.*, XXXVI, 474-78.

<sup>13</sup> The foregoing portion of this article has been adapted with minor revisions from the author's thesis, "Official Publications of Florida, 1821-1941" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Illinois, 1943), pp. 1-5.

<sup>14</sup> Albert H. Allen (ed.), *Dakota Imprints, 1858-1889* (New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1947), pp. 221.

lists that list publications of all agencies of a given state. Despite the advances made in other phases of state document bibliography, there is still a great need for more basic bibliographies or check lists that include all known publications issued by the official agencies of state governments from their establishment to the present date. Libraries need such lists to facilitate the acquisition of documents and the inventorying of holdings, to aid in cataloging documents, and to make reference and research work easier and more effective.

Between 1929 and 1943 document bibliographies for nine states (Arkansas, Florida, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Nebraska, and South Dakota) were compiled as Master's theses at the University of Illinois Library School, and document bibliographies for two states, Tennessee and Kentucky, were completed in 1940 and 1944, respectively, as Master's theses at the Columbia University School of Library Service. Other efforts have been made and are being made toward the compilation of bibliographies in several other states.

It is unfortunate, however, that many of the bibliographies that have been compiled recently remain in typed or manuscript form with their use consequently limited to the few libraries holding copies. According to the information that is available to the author, for not a single state does there exist at present what might be considered a complete and effective *printed* bibliographic record of official state publications. If plans for publication of Miss Shelton's check list of New Mexico documents, 1845-1945, and the annual supplements thereto, are carried out, state document bibliography in New Mexico will be well covered. Miss Foote's bibliography of Louisiana state publications, which was originally pre-

pared as a thesis at the University of Illinois Library School and subsequently printed by the Historical Records Survey, provides an excellent check list of Louisiana documents through 1934. Unfortunately no serial check list of current Louisiana documents has been published to keep this record up to date.

Miss Rockwood's check list of Oregon documents covering the period 1843-1925 has been published in issues of the *Oregon Historical Quarterly*, but, as in Louisiana, there is no serial check list to bring it up to date. The Virginia State Library bibliography of Virginia documents, 1776-1916, is to be supplemented by another printed list covering the documents for the period 1916-26. Since a serial check list has been published since 1926, there will then be complete bibliographic coverage for Virginia documents, although a single bibliography covering a longer period would be preferable. The bibliography of West Virginia documents from 1861 to 1939, listed in Wilcox' *Manual*, is supplemented by a serial check list beginning in February, 1942, published by the West Virginia Department of Archives and History Library. The Department of Archives and History is at present supervising the preparation of a new list of West Virginia documents. The Colorado Division of State Archives is preparing a complete bibliography of all publications issued by all state and territorial agencies from 1861 to June 30, 1947. It hopes to have this ready for publication by July 1, 1948. Printed bibliographies of the documents of other states cover shorter periods of time or do not cover documents of recent years.

For Florida there is an unpublished bibliography of documents for the period 1821-1941, supplemented by a mimeographed bimonthly check list beginning in July, 1942. Miss Thornton's manu-

script bibliography of official publications of North Carolina from the Colonial period through 1939 is supplemented by a monthly check list issued from 1940 through 1946. The Texas State Library has compiled a typed list of its holdings of Texas state documents for the period 1900-1944. This is supplemented by the document lists in their *Biennial Reports* and the check lists distributed with the documents shipments, although these lists are admittedly incomplete. In other states the published or unpublished comprehensive bibliographies of state publications have not been kept up to date by the issuance of serial check lists, or a gap of several years exists in the bibliographic coverage.

According to information secured through correspondence with the librarians of the universities and state libraries in the several states and through various bibliographic sources, bibliographies of the official publications of four states (Florida, Kentucky, New Jersey, and Texas) have been compiled since the publication of Mr. Wilcox' bibliography of such bibliographies in 1940, and three more are in progress (Colorado, Virginia, and West Virginia). Seven of the bibliographies which he listed as in progress have been completed. In respect to serial check lists of current state documents, eleven new titles have been initiated since the publication of Mr. Wilcox' list, and four of those listed by him have been discontinued. Two of the discontinued titles have been replaced by new publications.

The list of "comprehensive" bibliographies and check lists of state publications and serial check lists appended to this article has been compiled as a supplement to the list included in the *Manual on the Use of State Publications*. It includes the bibliographies and serial check lists of the documents of a single state

which are listed in Mr. Wilcox' supplementary lists in *Special Libraries*, but omits the bibliographies of the publications of one state agency and the bibliographies of a single subject or type of document, as agriculture, planning, statutes, university publications, etc. Although only those lists supposedly covering publications of all, or almost all, agencies are included, they vary considerably as to scope and as to the amount of bibliographic detail supplied for the documents listed.

Entries are classed in four categories:

1. *New*.—Items not included in Wilcox' basic list.
2. *Completed*.—Bibliographies listed by Wilcox as in progress, but now completed.
3. *Discontinued*.—Serial check lists discontinued since Wilcox' listing.
4. *Correction*.—Corrections to entries or notes in Wilcox' list. All corrections are based on information in letters to the author concerning the items in question.

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BIBLIOGRAPHIES OF STATE PUBLICATIONS, 1940-47

##### ARIZONA

###### *Discontinued*

Arizona. Department of Library and Archives. "Bibliography and Check-List. Publications, Reports and Public Documents of Arizona State Agencies, Issued or Received during the Period July 1, 1931 to June 30, 1933—July 1, 1938 to June 30, 1939//," *State Library News Letter*, No. 1 (July, 1933); No. 2 (July, 1935); No. 4 (October, 1936); etc.; No. 12 (October, 1939)///.

Title varies. Frequency varies.

Last published in *State Library News Letter*, No. 12 (October, 1939). Since 1939 an annual typed check list has been prepared by the Department, but it has not been printed or made available for distribution.

##### ARKANSAS

###### *New*

Arkansas. University. Library. *Checklist of Arkansas State Publications Received by the*

*University of Arkansas Library*, No. 1—  
(January–December 1943—) Fayetteville, 1944— Mim.

Semi-annual; No. 2, 1944—

There is a possibility that a check list of state publications compiled by the Arkansas State Library Commission will be included in *Arkansas Libraries* in the future.

## CALIFORNIA

*New*

California. Printing Division. Documents Section. *Quarterly Listing of California State Publications*, Vol. I, No. 1— (July–September 1947—) Sacramento, 1947— Quarterly, with annual cumulation in November issue.

The first annual cumulation will list all publications issued since September 15, 1945.

## COLORADO

*New*

Colorado. Department of Education. State Library. "Checklist of Colorado Official State Publications [April, 1940–December, 1941]." *Extension Bulletin*, No. 7, Pts. 1–7, July, 1940–42//.

Colorado Division of State Archives is preparing a complete bibliography of all publications issued by all territorial and state agencies from 1861 to June 30, 1947, which it hopes to have ready for publication by July 1, 1948.

## FLORIDA

*New*

Florida. University. Library. *Short-Title Checklist of Official Florida Publications Received by the University of Florida Library*, No. 1— (July–August 1942—) Gainesville, 1942— Mim.

Bi-monthly.

Lloyd, Dorothy Gwendolyn. "Official publications of Florida, 1821–1941." Unpublished Master's thesis, Univ. of Illinois, 1943. Pp. 537.

## GEORGIA

*Completed*

The Georgia State Library has completed a 70-page typewritten check list of Georgia state documents. It is primarily a list of holdings of the State Library, with the omission of the court decisions, statutes, and legislative journals. A copy of the list is deposited in the Library of Congress, and the State Library has a copy available for interlibrary loan.

## ILLINOIS

*Correction*

There is no check list of Illinois documents in preparation by the Illinois State Library other than the accession lists which appear periodically in *Illinois Libraries*.

## KANSAS

*New*

Kansas. Traveling Libraries Commission. "Kansas State Publications, 1936—," *Kansas Library Bulletin*, Vol. V, Nos. 2, 4 (June, Dec., 1936); Vol. VI, Nos. 2, 4 (Sept., Dec., 1937); Vol. VII, Nos. 1–3 (Mar., June, Sept., 1938); Vol. VIII, No. 2 (June, 1939); Vol. IX, Nos. 1–2 (Mar., June, 1940); Vol. X, No. 3 (Sept., 1941); Vol. XI, Nos. 1, 3/4 (Mar., Sept./Dec., 1942); Vol. XII, Nos. 2–3 (June, Sept., 1943); Vol. XIII, No. 3 (Sept., 1944); Vol. XIV, No. 2/3 (June/Sept., 1945); Vol. XVI, No. 4 (Dec., 1947); etc.

A selected list of documents received in the Kansas State Library. Issued irregularly.

## KENTUCKY

*New*

Stutsman, Ellen Butler. "Historical Development from 1792 to 1932 in the Printed Documents of Kentucky, with a View to Their Cataloging." Unpublished Master's thesis, Columbia Univ., 1944. Pp. 94.

## LOUISIANA

*Completed*

Foote, Lucy Brown. *Bibliography of the Official Publications of Louisiana, 1803–1934*. ([Historical Records Survey] "American imprints inventory . . .," No. 19.) Baton Rouge, La.: Hill Memorial Library, Louisiana State University, 1942. Pp. 579.

Prepared originally as a Master's thesis, Univ. of Illinois, 1935.

## MAINE

*New*

Maine. State Library. *Checklist of State of Maine Publications Received by the Maine State Library . . .* [List No. 1]— (January–September, 1941—) Augusta, 1941—

Quarterly, No. 2—

—. *Checklist of State of Maine Publications Received by the Maine State Library, January 1941–December 1944*. Compiled by the Maine State Library. Augusta, 1946. [65 l.]



A cumulation of the quarterly *Checklist* . . . , Nos. 1-14.

## MINNESOTA

*Discontinued*

Minnesota. Historical Society. *Check-List of Minnesota Public Documents*, Nos. 1-86, July, 1923-February, 1941//.

Discontinued as an economy move. A card list of the material which would have been published in the *Check-List* has been maintained by the Society. It hopes that arrangements will be completed soon to make its card list available on microfilm.

The July, 1925-June, 1935 cumulation listed by Wilcox as in preparation has not been published.

## MISSOURI

*Completed*

Saylor, Cerrilla Elizabeth. "Official Publications of the State of Missouri." Unpublished Master's thesis, Univ. of Illinois, 1941. Pp. 375.

## MONTANA

*Correction*

The University of Montana Library reports that Miss Winona Adams was not preparing a bibliography of Montana documents, but was working on an authority file.

## NEW HAMPSHIRE

*New*

The monthly *Check-List of New Hampshire State Documents Received at the State Library* which was first published in January, 1938, has been discontinued, and in its place the State Library has been publishing a biennial check list as a part of the *Report of the State Librarian*.

New Hampshire. State Library. "Checklist of New Hampshire State Documents Received at the State Library, July 1, 1938-June 30, 1940—," *Biennial Report*, 1938-40—Concord, 1940—Biennial.

1942/44 also published as a separate.

1944/46 published as *Supplement I of the Biennial Report* . . .

## NEW JERSEY

*New*

A comprehensive bibliography of New Jersey reports, 1905-45, supplementing the Hasse index to economic documents for New Jersey has just been printed and will be ready shortly for distribution by the New Jersey

Department of Education, Division of the State Library, Archives and History. (December 11, 1947.)

## NEW MEXICO

*Completed*

Miss Wilma Loy Shelton of the University of New Mexico planned to complete her check list of the New Mexico official publications, covering the period 1845-1945, by the end of 1947. It is to be published in several issues of the *New Mexico Historical Review*. An annual list will be issued in the same publication in order to keep the check list up to date.

## NEW YORK

*New*

New York. State Library. *A Check List of Official Publications of the State of New York*, October 1947—Mim. Monthly.

## NORTH CAROLINA

*New*

North Carolina. University. Library. Documents Department. *Monthly Checklist of Official North Carolina Publications*, Vols. I-VII (1940-46)//.

Monthly.

Discontinued with Vol. VII (1946).

*Completed*

Miss Mary L. Thornton, of the University of North Carolina Library, has completed her bibliography of the official publications of North Carolina, covering the period from the beginning of the Colonial press through 1939. The bibliography is in manuscript form only.

## OHIO

*Discontinued*

Ohio. Secretary of State. *Check-List of Ohio Public Documents* . . . , Vol. I-Vol. IV, No. 3, September, 1933-December, 1937//.

*New*

Ohio. State Library. "Check List of Ohio Public Documents"—First Quarter, Second Quarter, Third Quarter, 1930.

Typed copy.

Ohio. State Library. *Ohio State Publications: Documents Issued by Administrative Departments and Received by the Ohio State Library*, List No. 1—(December 1945—) Published irregularly. List No. 7 dated September, 1947.



## OKLAHOMA

## Correction

Mr. James J. Hill's bibliography mentioned on p. 87 of Wilcox was not a bibliography of Indian Territory documents. He directed a project which involved the listing of material relating to Indians in government publications.

## OREGON

## Completed

Rockwood, Eleanor Ruth, comp. "Oregon Document Checklist, 1843-1925," *Oregon Historical Quarterly*, XLV, 147-67, 253-79, 356-75; XLVI, 44-69, 156-69, 255-73, 358-82; XLVII, 34-60, 217-38, 358-86, 465-517 (June, 1944-December, 1946).

## SOUTH CAROLINA

## Correction

The M.A. thesis on South Carolina documents prepared by W. W. Smiley at the University of Illinois has been completed, but it is an historical account and does not contain a bibliography of documents, according to information received from the University of Illinois Library.

## TENNESSEE

## Completed

Cheney, Mrs. Frances Neel. "Historical and Bibliographical Study of the Administrative Departments of the State of Tennessee." Unpublished Master's thesis, Columbia Univ., 1940. Pp. 245.

## TEXAS

## New

The Texas State Library has compiled a typed list of the Texas state departmental publications for the period 1900-1944 that are on file in the State Library. It is supplemented by the check lists which are distributed with the document shipments and the compilation of these check lists which is published in its *Biennial Report*.

## VERMONT

## Correction

The Office of Commissioner of Public Printing of Vermont was superseded by the Purchasing Agent in 1912, and the *Biennial Report* of the Purchasing Agent during recent years has contained a listing of only some of the state documents.

## VIRGINIA

## New

The Virginia State Library is preparing a bibliography of Virginia state documents

issued during the period 1916-26. This will fill the ten-year gap which exists at present in the bibliographic record of Virginia state documents.

## WASHINGTON

## New

Washington. University. Bureau of Governmental Research. *Publications of the State of Washington. A List of Periodical and Other Current Publications Issued by Offices, Departments and Institutions of the State of Washington*. ("Report," No. 41, March 1, 1940.) Seattle, 1940. Pp. 35. Mim.

—. *Publications of the State of Washington*. ("Report," No. 52, October 1, 1941.) Seattle, 1941. Pp. 31. Mim.

Revision of "Report," No. 41.

Both reports are primarily title lists, arranged by departments without full bibliographic data on either series or separates. The Bureau hoped to issue an annual list, but no others have been published.

## WEST VIRGINIA

## New

[West Virginia. Department of Archives and History. Library.] *Checklist of West Virginia State Documents, February 1, 1942-June 1, 1942*—? [Charleston, 1942—?] Mim. Second issue covered period June 1-October 1, 1942, and third issue, October, 1942-February, 1943. No record of later issues found.

The West Virginia Department of Archives and History is supervising the preparation of a check list of West Virginia state publications.<sup>15</sup>

## WISCONSIN

## Correction

Wisconsin. State Historical Society. *Wisconsin Public Documents*. Compiled by the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, No. 1—(Dec., 1916—)

Annual cumulations published 1917-19.

Monthly, Vols. IV-XVII (1920-33); bi-monthly, Vols. XVIII-XXVIII (1934-44); quarterly, Vol. XXIX (1945)—

Title varies: *Checklist of Wisconsin Public Documents*, Vols. I-XXVIII; *Wisconsin Public Documents*, Vol. XXIX (1945)—

<sup>15</sup>A copy of the following check list was received by the author since the preparation of the article and bibliography: West Virginia Department of Archives and History, *Short Title Checklist of West Virginia State Publications, 1947-1948* (Charleston: Department of Archives and History, May 1, 1948). Pp. 11. (Mimeographed.)

## THE ACQUISITION AND PREPARATION DEPARTMENTS

ALEX LADENSON

THE recent attempt by Dr. Swank<sup>1</sup> to define the position of cataloging in the administrative structure of the library contains some rather basic weaknesses. Dr. Swank's major thesis, as the writer of this article understands it, is that the present trend of combining the acquisition process with cataloging is unsound and that, instead of this form of amalgamation, it is suggested that cataloging be united "with the bibliographical operations of the reference department."

To suggest that cataloging be joined with the bibliographic function of the reference department is to propose that it be married to a nebulous if not non-existent partner. What is the bibliographic function of the reference department? In how many libraries of this country are there serious bibliographical activities carried on in a reference department? In an earlier day librarians were bibliographers because the emphasis was on books and subject matter. Men like Jewett, Winsor, and Evans were great bibliographers because they knew books. Today librarians are administrative technicians—library engineers—and until the profession attracts men with deep knowledge of books, our bibliographies will continue to be compiled by nonlibrarians. Before it can be seriously maintained that cataloging be allied with the bibliographic function of the reference department, librarians must participate far more extensively

than at present in the production and use of bibliographies.

Swank's objection to the current administrative reorganization of libraries into two principal divisions, the service and technical, with a single head for each division reporting to the director, ignores some vital considerations. He contends that reducing the span of control from ten or more organizational units to two is too drastic and unwise. Granted that the number of organizational units reporting directly to the administrative chief of the library should be six or eight instead of two, there still remain, from the standpoint of efficient management, many real advantages to be gained in a large institution in having two assistant directors, one for service and one for technical departments. These assistant directors, for example, may be staff instead of line officers, or they may be endowed with a combination of line and staff duties. That is, it would be possible to have the principal department heads report directly to the director for certain purposes and to the assistant directors for others. Thus the chief librarian would have direct contact with major department heads on the more weighty matters, those, let us say, affecting policy, but be relieved of the necessity of making decisions on relatively minor problems.

The argument for the establishment of the positions of assistant directors in charge of public services and technical processes is not predicated, however, on the matter of narrowing the span of control alone, but rather on a deeper basis. The theory which motivates this innova-

<sup>1</sup> Raynard C. Swank, "The Catalog Department in the Library Organization," *Library Quarterly*, XVIII (1948), 24-32.

tion in the administrative reorganization of libraries is that the director must have expert advice on a broader plane than can now be furnished by individual department heads. Moreover, there is a crying need in most libraries for a more widespread co-ordination and integration of departmental functions which can be accomplished effectively only through the creation of an additional administrative level between the chief librarian and department heads.

Swank minimizes the importance of this co-ordination which is brought into existence by the establishment of this new administrative level and goes on to assert that, "given department heads who are reasonably co-operative," the same results will obtain without the appointment of assistant directors. It would be difficult, however, to substantiate this claim, for the facts of daily operation deny it. Unless some outside influence is brought to bear on the operation of departments, they will continue to function in an autonomous fashion without too great regard for sister departments.

The greatest advantage to be derived from the newly created positions of assistant directors of public services and technical processes is that they permit the library to indulge periodically in a program of self-analysis and evaluation which is virtually impossible under the older form of organization. It is difficult for a department head to conduct a soul-searching investigation of the faults and weaknesses of his own department. Too often it is merely a case of not seeing the forest on account of the trees. Then again, it is not uncommon for a department head to fail to find the necessary time for self-analysis merely because of the pressure of everyday routine. The consequence of all this is that little or no time is given toward improving opera-

tions. Inertia takes over, and practices are continued long after the need for them has passed. By having a specialist in public services and one in technical processes, whose principal duties are to study, evaluate, and improve work processes, the conditions we have described should not and do not prevail.

The assistant directors of public services and technical processes, by reason of their vantage point, are able to detect operational flaws which department heads cannot recognize. Being in a position to observe an entire chain of activities which often transcend departmental boundaries, the assistant directors discover relationships which department heads acting alone fail to uncover. Planning, so important in the administrative process, is far more effective through the co-ordinated effort of departments engineered by and consummated under the direction of the assistant directors. There is small doubt in the writer's mind that the dichotomy represented in the breakdown of library functions into public services and technical processes is a forward-looking move.

Turning now to a more detailed examination of Dr. Swank's major thesis, what do we find? His position is that there are no substantial inherent similarities or that there is no "functional unity" between the acquisition process and cataloging. He contends that the former "selects and acquires materials for the library," while the latter "organizes materials for use." This analysis is incomplete. It is true that the acquisition department selects and acquires materials for the library. But for what purpose and in what frame of reference? This activity is carried on in no isolated manner but rather with the public use in mind. Every movement that is made, every task that is performed is directed toward an ultimate

objective, namely, better public service. Just as the catalog department organizes materials for *use*, so does the acquisition department select and acquire materials for *use*. The key word here is *use*, and it is this factor that lends philosophical as well as functional unity to the acquisition and cataloging processes.

There is a sound basis for combining the acquisition process with cataloging. Under a broader conception of the purposes and objectives of these activities there will be found a functional unity. What is this conception? The acquisition and preparation activities of library service are organized for the purpose of providing and making accessible to the reader the necessary materials for his use. If the reader, or the public if you will, is to receive the maximum service, the two functions, acquisition and preparation, go hand in hand. There is an essential oneness in these processes. Of what avail is it in the total situation if the catalog department prepares materials for use, when the acquisition department in its selection policy ignores the principle of acquisition for use? What effect does it have on the library service of an institution if the acquisition department secures and accessions a book promptly while the catalog department delays the processing of it for several weeks or more? There is a wholeness in these activities that cannot be split without serious injury to the public. The fact that some of the operational steps differ in the two departments does not nullify the underlying unity. Dr. Swank omits completely from his consideration this unity of purpose which makes itself felt in the functional operations of the departments.

In support of his principal contention Dr. Swank disparages the opportunities for co-ordination that result from a union of acquisition and cataloging. His argu-

ment is that the opportunities for co-ordination "occur at the level of subprofessional or routine operations" and not at the professional levels. This may or may not be true, but in any case it is not of sufficient weight to gainsay the need for uniting acquisition and preparation activities. Whether we like it or not, the subprofessional or routine operations in acquisition and preparation cannot be brushed aside as summarily as Dr. Swank would have us do it. They are a fundamental part of the work.

But there is a relationship between the acquisition process and cataloging at the professional level. If, for example, the catalog department is derelict in its classification and subject cataloging operations, it will affect and seriously impede the book selection activities of the acquisition department. How can the selection process or the building up of a well-balanced collection be conducted on a scientific or even systematic basis if books have been incorrectly cataloged or classified? Properly conceived acquisition and cataloging are handmaidens at the professional as well as at the subprofessional levels.

The opportunities for co-ordination between acquisition and cataloging are numerous. The present writer has for more than three years been involved in co-ordinating the acquisition and preparation activities of a large public library. As a guide for the reorganization of the respective departments and the co-ordination of work procedures, he has formulated the following general principles:

1. The principal function of the acquisition and preparation departments is to acquire, record, catalog, and prepare books and other materials for public use and circulation as quickly as possible and in accordance with the best current standards of library practice.

2. Since the work of one department in the acquisition and preparation group is closely related and to a large extent dependent on that of another, it is desirable to organize the work techniques in each department on an "assembly line" basis with the books and other materials proceeding in an orderly and systematic fashion, according to a fixed sequence, from the time they reach the library until the time they are placed on the shelves for public use and circulation.

3. The acquisition and preparation services involve the handling of books and materials on a mass-production basis. Consequently, the work procedures must be designed to fit large-scale activity.

4. Since the acquisition and preparation departments constitute a logical administrative unit, every effort is to be made to avoid duplication of work, catalogs, files, and statistical records by the respective departments.

5. Since it is desirable that the processing of books and other materials proceed at an even flow and without any serious impediments, provision is to be made for the temporary shifting of personnel from one department to another to relieve periodic points of work congestion.

6. No work routine or technique is to be continued unless it serves a real current need. Practices inherited from the past, useful at an earlier period but obsolete at the present time, are to be avoided.

It is apparent from the above that the opportunities for co-ordination and integration of activities are considerable. Perhaps an example at this point may help to clarify matters. This example is taken from the public library field, but it may be possible that a similar case could occur in a university or research library.

The illustration to be cited relates to the work connected with the preparation of books and catalogs for a new branch.

Under the system of independent departmental operation the chain or sequence of events might be somewhat as follows: The acquisition department receives the order cards from the branch librarian and processes the order. The catalog department and bindery have no knowledge of the order until the books reach their respective departments. Thus there is no opportunity for advance planning. The right arm does not know what the left one is doing. Each department is a law unto itself and performs its part of the job to suit its own convenience, with little or no reference to the related work of the other departments. With no general provision for advance planning possible, the books for the new branch might conceivably have arrived at a time when it would have been most inconvenient for the catalog department and bindery and would have interfered seriously with the processing of other materials.

But under a co-ordinated scheme of acquisition and preparation this is what actually happened. Having learned of the proposed order, the assistant librarian in charge of acquisition and preparation conferred with all of the department heads involved to determine the most opportune time and manner in which to place the order. The dates for submitting the order were agreed upon, and a decision was made to split the order into two parts. The catalog department, by having had sufficient advance notice, was able to order Library of Congress cards immediately and to make plans for the preparation of the catalog. The bindery, too, having had knowledge of the order, was able to make plans for the handling of this additional material without disturbing the normal course of operation. Thus



the entire matter was handled in an efficient and orderly manner.

Many other examples of this sort can be cited, but it would be only to labor the point. Dr. Swank decries the use of the term "technical processes," and in general this writer has the very definite impression from a reading and rereading of Dr. Swank's paper that his quarrel with the present state of cataloging is largely one of terminology. For instance, he states, "our conception of cataloging as a technical process discourages the cataloger from developing a true interlibrary approach to problems concerning the organization of books for use." This is merely a case of a rose by another name. Would the cause of cataloging be advanced by substituting the term "bibliography" for "technical processes"? To contend, as Dr. Swank does, that the use of the term "technical processes" discourages new recruits from entering the cataloging profession is a feeble assumption.

Now let us examine further the proposition that cataloging be united with the bibliographic function of the reference department. Perhaps the remarks that follow should be prefaced with the explanation that this writer has reviewed carefully Dr. Swank's earlier studies<sup>2</sup> on the relationship of subject cataloging to bibliography and that he has found them extremely stimulating and rewarding. The writer agrees with Dr. Swank that it is the task of the cataloging profession to come to grips with the problem of integrating cataloging with bibliography in some fashion. But he cannot consent to his present proposal for it is too unrealistic.

<sup>2</sup> "Subject Catalogs, Classifications, or Bibliographies? A Review of Critical Discussions," *Library Quarterly*, XIV (1944), 316-22; "The Organization of Library Materials for Research in English Literature," *ibid.*, XV (1945), 49-74.

The chief hardship that militates against uniting cataloging with the bibliographic function of the reference department is that libraries do not have at the present moment qualified personnel to carry on serious bibliographical activities. It is not enough to be expert in the methodology of bibliography. To compile sound bibliographies we must have men who are subject-matter specialists or who are bibliophiles in the finest tradition of that term. Who, for example, is the editor of the *Cambridge Bibliography of English Literature* which Dr. Swank is so fond of citing? Not a librarian! The library profession today is not endowed with an abundance of individuals who are fitted for professional bibliographical work. Until it is, it is premature to suggest the establishment of bibliography departments as Dr. Swank envisages them.

In the scheme of operation proposed by Dr. Swank another Herculean assignment is delegated to the catalog department, namely, "the production of interlibrary guides to the literature of any subject." This, too, savors of unreality. How can catalog departments hope to undertake such ambitious programs when they are under fire already for spending too much of the library income. At every turn the cataloger is reminded of his extravagance. Interlibrary guides, if they are ever to be compiled, must be undertaken under co-operative auspices and perhaps by some central bibliographical agency.

Some may doubt the wisdom of combining bibliography with cataloging because it may possibly result in a continuation of emphasis on "bibliographical cataloging." For years the cataloging profession has been seeking to free itself from the shackles of bibliographical cataloging. The new *Rules for Descriptive Cataloging* recently issued by the Library



of Congress is a step in that direction. If, as Dr. Swank proposes, catalogers are to be bibliographers, it may well be that the tendencies responsible for the development of bibliographical cataloging will operate toward keeping alive practices and procedures which are now being cast aside.

Is there nothing then that can be done at the present time to relate bibliography to subject cataloging? As suggested by Dr. Swank, more attention could be given to building up the bibliography collection of the library. Better shelving facilities could also be provided so that bibliographies are made more easily accessible to the user. The card catalog through the use of references could give more prominent notice to particular items in the bibliography collection.

Finally, it might also be desirable to make more analytics for bibliographies found in monographs, scholarly journals, and kindred publications. But beyond this a great deal more cannot be accomplished.

If through some unforeseen stroke of events it were possible for libraries to undertake bibliographical enterprises of a substantial character, the writer can see no great objection to their being conducted in the catalog department. But this can be done within the present framework of our administrative structure. It would not be necessary to divorce cataloging from the acquisition process. There is no sound or compelling reason at this time for disturbing the functional unity that exists between the acquisition process and cataloging.

## A COMPARISON OF REVIEWS OF BOOKS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN GENERAL AND IN SCHOLARLY PERIODICALS

VICTORIA E. HARGRAVE

IN ALL fields, there presumably are differences between the literary materials intended for the general or lay reader and those intended for the specialist. The nature of the differences, similarities, and variations has thus far been subject to little systematic attention. One small section of the literature consists of book reviews.

The differences between the materials for "mass" and "expert" communication in this field, as exemplified in the reviews which appear in general and in scholarly periodicals, are important for scholar and librarian alike, but especially for the librarian, for upon him falls the task of selecting books for the different types of readers who make up his clientele. Since probably the most important source of information about new books is the book review, the librarian needs to know the characteristics of reviews in general and in scholarly periodicals. Which reviews will be best for purposes of library book selection? Should he turn to the reviews in general periodicals for some types of information and to the reviews in scholarly journals for other types? Thus far librarians have depended mainly on what they have learned through their own experience with book reviews and on the experience of others as reported in library literature or by word of mouth.

The purpose of this study was to investigate systematically the differences between reviews in the two types of periodicals. Since book reviewing in the several subject fields, as well as of general

fiction and nonfiction, may show wide variations, it would be difficult to generalize for reviews as a whole. Hence for this study, one area only was selected—reviews of social science literature. Only those books were included, of course, which had been reviewed in both general and scholarly periodicals. Thus, books of a very popular nature as well as extremely technical monographs were excluded. The reviews here analyzed are of books presumed to have some interest for both lay reader and subject specialist.

The differences between reviews in general and in scholarly periodicals have been little explored. There have been a few general statements by such writers as Ralph Thompson, A. C. Pigou, and Helen Haines.<sup>1</sup> Among the more specific criticisms are statements that book reviewing is not critical enough, that reviewing in general periodicals is "sensational," that reviews in general periodicals are more likely to "overpraise" than are those in scholarly periodicals, and that reviews written by college professors are less favorable than those written by professional reviewers.

From the statements of writers, from experience with book reviews, and from popular beliefs regarding book reviewing, several hypotheses were suggested. The

<sup>1</sup> Ralph Thompson, "The Popular Review and the Scholarly Book," *English Institute Annual*, 1940 (New York: Columbia University Press, 1941), pp. 139-43; A. C. Pigou, "Newspaper Reviewers: Economics and Mathematics," *Economic Journal*, LI (1941), 276-80; H. E. Haines, "Book Reviewing in Review," *Library Journal*, LIX (1934), 733-37.

more important concerned the description and evaluation of the book reviewed and the attention given to the probable audience of the book by the reviewer. The study proposed to test the hypothesis that the reviews in general periodicals contain more descriptive matter than do those in scholarly periodicals. A second hypothesis was that reviews in general periodicals are more favorable toward the book than are those in scholarly periodicals. A third was that though the same standards of criticism were used in the two types of periodical, reviews in the general periodicals were more "sensational"; and that reviewers in the scholarly periodicals tended to "air their views" by including discussion not relevant to the book under review more often than did reviewers in the general periodicals. Another hypothesis was that the reviewers in the scholarly journals more often related the book to its subject field or compared it to other books. Finally, it was contended that the reviewers in general periodicals are more concerned with the probable audience of the book than are the reviewers in the scholarly periodicals.

#### PROCEDURE

The basic assumption of this investigation was that differences between reviews in general and scholarly periodicals may be established by analyzing the content of book reviews. Reviews of books in the social sciences were chosen for analysis, but to narrow the scope of the study to workable limits, the fields of history and education were omitted. The three fields selected were economics, political science and international relations, and sociology, as those fields are defined by the Dewey Decimal Classification.

In order that the study might have relevance to library book-selection prob-

lems, the books for which reviews were analyzed were selected from the *Booklist*. Thus, the suitability of the books for library purposes was assured. The volumes for 1943-44 and 1944-45 of the *Booklist* were used to permit sufficient time for the appearance of reviews in the scholarly journals. The titles of the books listed in these two volumes in the Dewey "300" classification (with the exception of books on education) constituted the group from which the sample for study was chosen.

#### SELECTION OF THE REVIEWS

Selection of the reviews involved definition of "general" and "scholarly" journals. Since the books selected for study fell into three general fields—economics, political science and international relations, and sociology—outstanding American journals in each of them were accepted as the scholarly book-reviewing periodicals. Since reviews of less than three hundred words are little more than annotations, only reviews of three hundred words or over were included. For preliminary selection the count of words as noted in the *Book Review Digest* was accepted. The *Book Review Digest* was found to be best for locating reviews. Because some reviews in scholarly periodicals appear too late for inclusion in the *Book Review Digest*, the indexes of the bound volumes were examined for indications of additional reviews.

All titles for which at least three reviews in general and three in scholarly periodicals had appeared were isolated. This group consisted of only 36 books out of the 359 listed in the two volumes of the *Booklist*. These books were of a uniformly serious nature and do not constitute a representative sample of the books listed in the *Booklist*. The type of book used

should be kept in mind when interpreting the findings of this study.

At the beginning of the analysis, the cards for the books in each of the three subject fields were arranged alphabetically, and every other book was selected. Later, additional books were chosen at random from the remaining titles to make ten books in economics and ten in political science and international relations; all six of the books in sociology were used. Representative of the books chosen are *The Theory of Economic Progress*, by Clarence Edwin Ayres; *Politics and Morals*, by Benedetto Croce; and *An American Dilemma*, by Gunnar Myrdal.

Although the books were chosen from the *Booklist* because three reviews of each had appeared in general and in scholarly periodicals, only two reviews in each of the two types of periodicals were chosen for analysis.

Since the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* is a general social science periodical, the more specialized journals of each discipline were given preference in the selection of the reviews. In economics, reviews from the *American Economic Review* and the *Journal of Political Economy* were selected first. In political science and international relations, reviews from *American Political Science Review*, *Journal of Political Economy*, and *Political Science Quarterly* were first choices. In sociology, *American Journal of Sociology* and *American Sociological Review* were preferred.

Among the general periodicals, the *New York Times Book Review*, the *New York Herald Tribune Weekly Book Review*, and the *Saturday Review of Literature* were the preferred journals, since they are the most widely used of the general periodicals as book-selection aids by librarians. When reviews in all three of these periodicals appeared, two were

chosen on the basis of chronology—for the first book, the first and second reviews to appear were chosen; for the second book, the first and third reviews; and, for the third book, the second and third. When it was necessary to choose a review from other than these three periodicals, the first published review was selected.

#### DETERMINATION OF THE CATEGORIES AND METHOD OF CODING

To study the characteristics of reviews in the general and scholarly periodicals, the best technique seemed to be content analysis.<sup>2</sup> Extensive reading of reviews in all three subject fields revealed many factors on which comparison of reviewing might be based. These were noted with examples of their use. When further reading revealed no new characteristics, analysis sheets were prepared listing the relevant categories.

The categories fell into several groups. The first included the general subject areas of the reviews. These areas were: description of the content of the book, general evaluation, characteristics of the audience, identification of the author, and "other"—a residual category containing introductory and concluding sentences, etc.

The second group of categories was concerned with evaluation. The categories here were explicit and implicit favorable, and unfavorable, evaluation. Closely related to these categories was the next set, standards of evaluation.

<sup>2</sup>For a discussion of content analysis as a methodological technique, see Appendix B, "Notes on Content Analysis," in *What Reading Does to People*, ed. by Douglas Waples, Bernard Berelson, and F. R. Bradshaw (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940), pp. 146-57, and H. D. Lasswell, "Describing the Contents of Communications," in *Propaganda, Communication, and Public Opinion*, ed. by B. L. Smith, H. D. Lasswell, and R. D. Casey (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1946), pp. 74-94.

The standards studied were accuracy-inaccuracy, objectivity-bias, insight-lack of insight, organization, clarity-confusion, comparison, and style.

Other topics isolated for special study were author's omissions, documentation, methodology, "sensationalism," and quotations from the book.

Another set of categories included the presence or absence of such items as the index, bibliography, charts, illustration, etc. Items of bibliographical information, length, and date of appearance of reviews were also included in the categories. The final categories concerned the identification and the qualifications of the reviewers.

It was decided that the most efficient meaning unit for coding was the grammatical sentence. The sentence was chosen rather than a unit based on number of words or lines because the analysis of the reviews was made in terms of concepts or ideas. The sentence is the natural unit for the expression of one thought. The length of the sentence would not greatly matter since tabulation of the length of the reviews would be based on number of words rather than on number of sentences.

An early problem centered about the inclusion in a single sentence of several concepts, which would place the sentence in several different categories. One word would usually be sufficient to class a sentence in a category. The following sentence contains several different concepts:

Attentive and serious readers (others should not attempt the work) will find fascination and illumination in the precision and complete detail of the study, its logical presentation and the dispassionate objectivity with which the subject is examined.

First, the sentence as a whole is a favorable comment on the book and is based on several standards. "Illumina-

tion" implies insight on the part of the author. "Precision and complete detail" suggest accuracy. "Logical presentation" means that the book is well organized. "Dispassionate objectivity" denotes the lack of bias on the part of the author. In addition, the reviewer names the type of reader for whom the book is appropriate. This sentence fits into six categories. Since to ignore five categories and to place this sentence in one would give a distorted picture of the content of the sentence, it was decided to multiple-code between and among the categories. In other words, the sentence quoted would be coded in six different categories. Not many sentences would fit into this many categories, but many did fit into two or three. Even so, the analysis of the general subject categories showed only about 15 per cent more "meaning units," i.e., concepts, than grammatical sentences.

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE CONTENT OF THE BOOK

Probably the primary purpose of a book review is to furnish information regarding new books. While literary criticism seeks to make judgments and establish principles of writing, book reviewing is a department of journalism. The province of the book reviewer is to point out the contemporary books which he thinks are significant enough to deserve consideration. To librarians as well as to others, the description of the content of the book, its scope and general purpose, is a major feature.

In comparing reviews in the general and scholarly periodicals, attention was given to the number of sentences devoted to description of the content of the book. Any statements describing what the book was about, the author's purpose or method, the theme or scope of the book, the documentation, or quotations from the



text of the book were considered descriptive of the content. Representative examples follow:

Professor Groves's *Production, Jobs, and Taxes* is one of several current proposals for post-war tax revision.

... the purpose of the author is to present, not a history of the Red Army, but a study in military sociology, chiefly from the point of view of social conflicts inside the Red Army.

From the large mass of documentary evidence accumulating daily before the federal courts and various congressional investiga-

librarian must consider how any particular book will fit into the book collection, this fact is of primary importance. The person in charge of book selection must be able to tell whether the book duplicates one already in the collection, whether it will be of supplemental value, or whether it will fill a gap. From this standpoint, the large amount of attention devoted to description of content is especially helpful.

Of the sentences devoted to such description, 12 per cent consisted of quotations from the book. Quotations were included in 70 per cent of the reviews analyzed, with an average of four or five sentences per review. Quotations comprised 9 per cent of all the sentences in the reviews. The use of quotations was almost equally divided between the reviews in the general and in the scholarly periodicals.

TABLE 1  
PERCENTAGE OF SENTENCES DEVOTED TO  
DESCRIPTION AND EVALUATION OF  
CONTENT

Categories	Percentage General	Percentage Scholarly	Percentage All Reviews
Description of content.....	75	72	73
Evaluation of content.....	22	31	26
Other.....	16	12	14
Total.....	113*	115*	113*
	100 Per Cent = 1,967 Sentences	100 Per Cent = 1,616 Sentences	100 Per Cent = 3,583 Sentences

\* The percentages equal more than 100 per cent since some sentences were coded in more than one category. For an explanation of this coding, see above.

tion committees, Berge has skilfully selected and freely quoted the most significant facts and woven them together in eminently readable style.

Description of the content of the book was the first major category of analysis, and almost three-fourths of the content of the reviews analyzed fell in this category.

There is little difference between the amount of content description in reviews in general and in scholarly periodicals. Every review, of course, contained some description of content. Since the

#### IDENTIFICATION OF THE AUTHOR

Before considering the contents of the book itself, the librarian often wishes to know something about the qualifications of the author, or at least to identify him. The reviews were analyzed to ascertain what information was given about the author. Statements in this category included the author's background as to education, experience, or position; identification in terms of relation to a movement or theory; or reference to the author's other writings. While examples of each type were found, the great bulk of the reviews referred to the author's education, experience, or position. The following quotation illustrates this category:

It was a stroke of genius on the part of Dr. F. P. Keppel, of the Carnegie Corporation, to summon this brilliant and humane young social economist from Sweden to make a comprehensive study of the Negro in America.



The amount of attention given to author identification as measured in number of sentences is small. Only 5 per cent of the sentences in the reviews contained references to this category. There is a striking difference, however, between the percentage of sentences devoted to identifying the author and the number of reviews containing reference to him. Nearly three-fourths of the reviews identified the author; over 85 per cent of those in general periodicals and 62 per cent in the scholarly periodicals. Perhaps the reviewer in the scholarly periodical assumes that the audience already knows the authors and that further identification is unnecessary.

#### OMISSIONS BY THE AUTHOR

Another area of importance consists of omissions by the author and the limits of the material covered, and this category includes statements on this point. The following is typical:

And finally there are many lacunae in Mr. Feis' recital. He does not, for example, critically analyze the effects of Mr. Hull's Reciprocal Trading Agreements. He gives no attention to the alternative proposals advanced in connection with the Bretton Woods Stabilization Fund. . . .

Reference to omissions and limits is made in only 2 per cent of all the sentences in the reviews. However, this category was present in more than one-third of the reviews. There was no appreciable difference in the attention given as between the reviews in the general and in the scholarly periodicals.

#### DOCUMENTATION OF THE BOOK

In social science, knowledge of the documentation of the book is frequently necessary for the librarian considering its purchase. The following quotation shows the kind of attention given to documentation in the reviews:

Starting with the theoretical outline here presented, he fills in his story with evidences adduced from departmental investigations into the following industries: synthetic hormones, vitamins. . . . And an appendix indicates that the Department of Justice since 1937 has started some fifty suits, under our anti-trust laws against American companies involved with foreign cartels.

Documentation was mentioned in only 2 per cent of the sentences; however, this category appeared in 45 reviews, or nearly half of the total examined. Again, as with the category of omissions and limitations, there was no appreciable difference between the reviews in general and in scholarly periodicals.

#### METHODOLOGY OF THE AUTHOR

The rapid development of the social sciences has led to much discussion of the methodological techniques employed in the field. Since one place where methodology might be discussed by social scientists is in their book reviews, the category of methodology was established and defined as including statements on how the author selected his sample, collected his data, and similar items. An example of the category is given in this quotation:

In order to secure the data upon which to base his analysis, Myrdal set up a plan of research and brought together a large staff of American social scientists, White and Negro. This enterprise, which consumed more than a year's time, is a striking instance of highly successful group-operated research. While the author depended on the vast collection of materials which this staff put together, he also drew on his personal impressions of Negro-White relations gained by conversation and observation.

The analysis indicated that none of the reviewers in the general periodicals had discussed methodology, and only four mentioned it in the scholarly periodicals. Only 0.4 per cent of the sentences in the reviews contained any reference to methodology. The few statements made were

very general in nature; for example, the book "is not held to a standard of scientific sociological analysis."

The fact that the reviewers are apparently not concerned with discussing the methodology of the books reviewed is startling, and, from the standpoint of the scholar who wishes to judge conclusions at least partly on the basis of methodology, a serious one.

#### EVALUATION OF THE CONTENT OF THE BOOK

The next major aspect of the reviews examined was evaluation of the book, and approximately one-fourth of the sentences in the reviews were devoted to it. In fact, only 3 reviews out of the 104 analyzed failed to give some evaluation. The space devoted to evaluation varied, of course, from a single sentence to an extended criticism.

Aside from the fact that description and evaluation receive the major attention of reviewers, one other point stands out clearly. Reviews in scholarly periodicals devote more space to evaluation than do those in general periodicals (see Table 1), and therefore are likely to be especially useful to the librarian.

#### CHARACTER OF THE EVALUATION

Probably more attention has been given in the literature of book reviewing to the amount and character of criticism than to any other aspect. Miss Haines's statement sums up the various comments:

We have passed from the savagery of earlier book reviewing into an engulfing and meaningless amiability. The prevailing attitude in the general field of reviewing today is not critical, but rather one of enthusiastic appreciation or non-committal acceptance. The great mass of reviews are superficial, but ardent; they indicate excellencies, they convey subject or theme in as lively and entertaining a fashion as possible; they are eager to discover and celebrate great-

ness. This tendency to praise and accept is registered in the preponderance of plus over minus signs in any issue of the *Book Review Digest*.<sup>3</sup>

An evaluational statement is considered to be one which contains a judgment by the reviewer concerning the subject matter presented in the book. These judgments may be made from many different viewpoints. Just as the reviewer can describe the author's purpose, method, theme, and scope, so can he evaluate them. The results, the documentation, are also subject to evaluation. The reviewer may base his criticism on comparison of the book or the theories of the author with other books or ideas. Any sentence which contained a favorable or unfavorable judgment on the book was coded as evaluational. The following quotations give examples of evaluational statements:

Dr. Basch's book presents a thorough and expert analysis of the economic structure of a region whose unsolved problems have twice set the world afire.

The subject matter covers a wide range of problems, but the brevity of the treatment gives little opportunity for incisive and penetrating analysis of a particular problem.

The foregoing quotations are clearly evaluational. However, many borderline cases were encountered, such as:

For all of his experience and realism, Appleby's faith in our ability to improve our lot by governmental means remains unmarred by an enervating cynicism.

While this statement may have a favorable flavor, the concept is too vague and general to be coded as evaluationally favorable.

Wherever some word, phrase, or idea made it explicit that a judgment was being made, that sentence was coded as being explicitly evaluational. In some cases the evaluation was implied rather

<sup>3</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 734.

than stated outright. One reviewer remarked, for instance:

There is no need whatever to reject price theory because of its misuse by John Bates Clark and a few others. Only antitheoretical institutional economists can be tricked into so unfortunate a position.

While this statement makes no outright criticism of the author's viewpoint, it can be interpreted only as an unfavorable comment. Judgments of this sort were coded as implicitly favorable or unfavorable.

When the reviews in the general and scholarly periodicals were taken as a whole, the amount of space devoted to favorable and unfavorable comment was found to be exactly the same. In the light of librarians' belief that most reviews are too favorable, and with the special character of the books for which the reviews were analyzed taken into account, this fact is perhaps the most significant in Table 2.

Twenty-nine of the 101 reviews containing evaluational statements had no negative comment regarding the book, but, on the other hand, seven reviews were without favorable comment. The rest, nearly two-thirds, contained both favorable and unfavorable comment.

Nearly all the evaluational statements were explicit in their meaning. More of the implicit statements were negative than positive. If a reviewer can make a positive assertion regarding a book, he does so in an outright manner, but he is more likely to soften the blow or speak ironically when delivering a negative opinion.

Although all the reviews taken together show favorable and unfavorable comment to be equal in amount, separate examination of the reviews in general periodicals reveals 13 per cent more favorable comment than in the scholarly periodicals. The difference between the

two media appears on the explicit rather than the implicit level. The fact that the reviews in the general periodicals are more favorable conforms to the general opinion that reviewers in scholarly periodicals are less likely to praise a book.

It might be suggested that the more unfavorable reviewing in the scholarly periodicals is due to the fact that in them the reviews are usually written by college

TABLE 2  
PERCENTAGE OF FAVORABLE AND UNFAVORABLE EVALUATION

Characteristics	Percentage General	Percentage Scholarly	Percentage All Reviews
Explicitly favorable.....	55	41	47
Implicitly favorable.....	2	3	3
Total.....	57	44	50
Explicitly unfavorable.....	33	47	41
Implicitly unfavorable.....	10	9	9
Total.....	43	56	50
Total.....	100 = 449 Meaning Units*	100 = 526 Meaning Units*	100 = 975 Meaning Units*

\* The total meaning units in this table do not correspond to the total number of evaluational sentences, since some sentences were coded in more than one category. For instance, in the general category, the actual number of sentences was 434 while the "meaning units," favorable and unfavorable, added up to 449. In the scholarly category, the difference was 22.

professors, while in the general periodicals the reviewing is done by professional writers. However, college professors write extensively for both media, and a separate analysis was made of the reviews by persons known to be college or university professors. Sixty-three per cent of the reviews in scholarly periodicals were included, and 40 per cent of reviews in the general. Contrary to what might be expected, no significant change was noted in the distribution of favorable and unfavorable evaluation. College professors when writing in the general periodicals

are less likely by a 10 per cent margin to give adverse criticism than when writing in the special journals.

The greater amount of favorable reviewing in the general periodicals, whether the writers are professors or not, seems to indicate definitely that the type of reviewer is less responsible for the differ-

TABLE 3  
PERCENTAGE OF FAVORABLE AND UN-  
FAVORABLE EVALUATION BY  
PROFESSOR-REVIEWERS

Character- istics	Percentage General	Percentage Scholarly	Percentage All Reviews
Explicitly fa- vorable.....	56	45	48
Implicitly fa- vorable.....	2	3	3
Total.....	58	48	51
Explicitly un- favorable....	30	43	39
Implicitly un- favorable....	12	9	10
Total.....	42	52	49
Total.....	100 = 183 Sentences	100 = 378 Sentences	100 = 561 Sentences

ence between the general and scholarly periodicals than is the type of medium in which the review appears. The reviews written by college professors were not more critical than the reviews taken as a whole; in fact, the favorability of reviewing rose slightly when all but professor-reviewers were eliminated from the analysis.

#### STANDARDS USED IN EVALUATION

Thus far the favorable and unfavorable and the explicit and implicit aspects of evaluation have been examined. Evaluation may also be studied on the basis of standards applied by the reviewers in making their judgments. It was found during the preliminary reading of reviews that certain standards of evalua-

tion frequently recurred. Seven standards which seemed relevant were isolated and defined: accuracy-inaccuracy, objectivity-bias, insight-lack of insight, comparison, clarity-confusion, style, and organization. These standards, of course, were not the only ones that might have been studied, but they seemed to be the most important.

It is clear from Table 4 that there is no unusual emphasis on any one or two standards; on the contrary, there is considerable spread. Reviewers obviously use several bases for evaluation. Some reviews refer to only a single standard; and, in fact, sixteen reviews failed to mention any of these standards specifically.

TABLE 4  
PERCENTAGE OF SENTENCES DEVOTED TO  
STANDARDS OF EVALUATION

Standards	Percentage General	Percentage Scholarly	Percentage All Reviews
Accuracy-inac- curacy.....	9	16	12
Objectivity- bias.....	10	10	10
Insight-lack of insight.....	8	4	6
Comparison....	8	3	6
Clarity-confu- sion.....	5	5	5
Style.....	5	3	4
Organization...	1	.....	1
Other.....	54	59	56
Total.....	100 = 434 Sentences	100 = 504 Sentences	100 = 938 Sentences

\* Less than 1 per cent.

† "Other" includes evaluational sentences in which other or general standards were applied.

The standards which appear most frequently in the reviews are accuracy-inaccuracy and objectivity-bias; they appear in 58 and 46 per cent of the reviews, respectively, while the nearest of the other standards, comparison, appears in only 32 per cent. Insight-lack of insight, clarity-confusion, and style rank close to comparison. Organization, however,

ranks far below, being applied in only about 6 per cent of the reviews.

It has already been noted that favorable and unfavorable evaluations were about equally divided, but when amount of space devoted to positive and negative aspects of the standards of evaluation were tabulated, this proportion no longer held true. In most cases the positive aspect received greater attention than the negative, and in several cases the spread was rather wide, especially in the general periodicals. For instance, 8 per cent of the evaluative sentences referred to accuracy, while only 0.7 per cent referred to inaccuracy.

Finally, a word about the "other standards" referred to in Table 4, which constitutes well above half of the evaluational sentences identified. Here were grouped such comments as "good"—obviously too general to be applied to any of the specific standards referred to, but probably applying to one or more of them. Thus, when a reviewer characterizes a book as "good," he probably means it is accurate, objective, well written, etc., or a combination of such factors. It is clearly impossible to assign the judgment to any of the standards isolated for specific attention.

#### EXPRESSION OF REVIEWER'S OPINION

One aspect of book reviewing within the general area of evaluation is the expression of the reviewer's opinion. As Mr. Ditzion points out: "All too often the book review is used by professional men as a device for damning their rivals or airing their own views on a subject."<sup>4</sup> In this study, reviewer's opinion was defined to include statements without direct relevance to the subject matter of the book. In many reviews it is almost impossible to tell when the reviewer is

<sup>4</sup>Sidney Ditzion, "Book Reviewing Media and the Book Review Digest," *Library Journal*, LIX (1934), 425-26.

paraphrasing the author's ideas and when he is expressing his own opinion. If the remarks of the reviewer were closely related to the theme of the book, they were omitted from this category, but when they were clearly unrelated, they were coded as "reviewer's opinion."

In the reviews analyzed, opinions of the reviewer as defined were not frequent. All the sentences devoted to reviewer's opinion in the general periodicals appeared in only two reviews. One contained forty sentences of opinion not directly related to the evaluation of the book, and the other contained seventy. In the scholarly journals, only four reviews contained such statements.

Criticism of reviews on this score may be due to readers' attention being arrested by several striking examples of reviewers' digressions. It is easy to ascribe this characteristic impressionistically to all reviews on the basis of a few examples. While an occasional reviewer may be guilty of airing his opinion without relation to the book reviewed, this characteristic seems to be quite uncommon.

#### SENSATIONALISM IN BOOK REVIEWING

Another common belief is that reviews in general periodicals are more sensational in nature than those in the scholarly periodicals. Sensationalism is difficult to measure; however, it was assumed that the number of superlatives used in evaluational sentences might give an indication of the degree of sensationalism. Representative of the use of a superlative is this quotation:

This is by all odds the most thoroughgoing study with which the reviewer is familiar.

With examples such as the foregoing coded in the category of sensationalism, it was found that the percentage of reviews containing superlatives is exactly the same in general as in scholarly peri-



odicals, with ten reviews in each class of periodical. All of the superlatives applied were positive. The books were the "best" rather than the "worst" from whatever angle the reviewer was speaking. The fact that only 10 per cent of the reviews in each medium contained superlatives contradicts the assertion that reviews in general periodicals tend to be effusive. As revealed in this study, the use of superlatives is clearly not characteristic of reviewing as a whole.

#### CONCLUSION

Several other categories were mentioned in the procedure section of this paper. The results of the analysis for characteristics of the audience, bibliographical information, physical characteristics of the book, length of book reviews, timeliness of reviewing, and identification of reviewers are discussed briefly in the conclusion.

In this study the field of book reviewing in general and in scholarly periodicals was explored from several different viewpoints. Now that the reviews have been examined, what do their salient characteristics seem to be? In what respects are they alike and in what different? Are the reviews in the scholarly periodicals worth waiting for, or are the reviews in the general periodicals as good for library book-selection purposes?

First of all, there are many more aspects in which reviewing in general and scholarly periodicals is alike than in which it differs. As far as becoming familiar with the contents of the book is concerned, it makes no great difference whether the librarian reads reviews in general or in scholarly periodicals. Both devote nearly three-fourths of their sentences to describing the contents of the book.

In almost half the reviews the librarian finds comment on the extent and nature

of the documentation as often in one medium as in the other. In about one-third of the reviews the omissions made by the author or the limits of the book are discussed, again with no appreciable difference in the two types of reviews. There is not much comment regarding the author's methodology, for the reviews in the general periodicals do not mention methodology at all, and only about one review in twenty-five in the scholarly periodicals makes a general statement regarding the methodology.

The standards used by the reviewers are similar in the two types of reviewing media, although the reviewers in the scholarly periodicals are more frequently concerned with accuracy or inaccuracy. The standards of accuracy-inaccuracy and objectivity-bias are more frequently applied than others investigated, but this holds true both in the general and in the scholarly periodicals.

Contrary to general belief, the reviews in the general periodicals are no more effusive or "sensational" than those in the scholarly periodicals. The reviewers in the scholarly periodicals air their own views no more frequently than do the reviewers in the general periodicals, and, in fact, this takes place very infrequently.

From the standpoint of the designation of the audience, there is little difference between reviewing in general and in scholarly periodicals. From less than half of the reviews can the librarian discover for whom the book was intended. Rarely does the reviewer say whether the book should be used for reference, as text, or in other ways. In about 4 per cent more reviews in the scholarly periodicals the potential audience is mentioned, but this is too slight to be significant. Enough bibliographical information regarding the book is given to permit easy identification, but there is little mention of the

presence or absence of an index, bibliography, illustrations, etc. In all the aspects mentioned above, the differences between the reviews in the general and in the scholarly periodicals are not great enough to justify recommending one medium over the other. What differences do exist?

In the amount of evaluation contained in the reviews in general and in scholarly periodicals there is a difference. As measured by the number of sentences, there is 9 per cent more evaluation in the scholarly than in the general periodicals. When the reviews were taken as one group, 50 per cent of the evaluation was favorable and 50 per cent was unfavorable, but when the two types of reviewing media were compared, the reviews in the scholarly periodicals were found to be less favorable by 13 per cent than those in the general periodicals. These are the most striking differences between the two types of reviewing. The difference in the favorability of the reviews in the two types of media is not affected appreciably by whether the reviews are written by college professors or by professional writers; the relationships are about the same.

Another difference is in the attention given to identification of the author. Nearly three-fourths of the reviews indicate the author's identification more or less fully. Such identification appears more often in the general than in the scholarly periodicals—85 as compared to 62 per cent.

While these are the main differences between the reviews in general and in scholarly periodicals, there are, of course, certain minor differences. Though over half of all the reviewers are connected with a college or university, not quite half of the reviews in general periodicals are written by professors, while over three-quarters of those in scholarly peri-

odicals are written by persons with a college or university affiliation. The next largest group of reviewers consists of professional writers, more of them writing in the general than in the scholarly periodicals.

Another difference between the two types of reviewing media consists of timeliness. A librarian must wait, on the average, only two months after publication for reviews in the general periodicals to appear, while nearly eight months may elapse before reviews appear in the scholarly periodicals. The reviews in the general periodicals are generally longer than those in the scholarly journals by about one hundred words each.

Is it worth waiting nearly six months longer to consult the reviews in scholarly periodicals? On most counts, it is not. By waiting, the librarian finds more evaluational comment, which is likely to be not as favorable as that in the general periodicals. From other standpoints the differences are slight enough to be outweighed by the greater timeliness of the reviews in general periodicals.

What is the implication of the study with regard to "mass" and "expert" media of communication? In the field of reviewing of social science books in general and scholarly periodicals, there is little difference in the interpretation of the current scholarship for lay readers or for scholars. The main difference lies in the somewhat more critical attitude of the reviewers in the scholarly periodicals. There is relatively little difference between the interpretations given to the products of scholarship for popular as against technical consumption. Whether this should be taken to mean that therefore popular reviewing of these books is good or that scholarly reviewing is inadequate is a matter of individual judgment. At any rate, there is very little difference between the two.

## THE COVER DESIGN

JACOB VAN LIESVELDT was born about 1489. He began printing about 1522, in the printing section of Antwerp in the Camerport on the bridge de la Porte de la Chambre, at the Sign of the Arms of Artois. In 1536 he was admitted as a printer into the Guild of St. Luke in Antwerp.

Van Liesveldt was an early instance, perhaps the earliest, of a Bible printer. Almost his entire efforts were devoted to the production of editions of the Scriptures. About 1522 he printed his first book, the first edition of the Gospels to appear in the Dutch language. This was a Catholic version translated from the Vulgate. He quickly embraced the reformed doctrine. In 1526 he printed the first complete Dutch Bible translated by some unknown Dutch scholars, probably at his expense. This edition was based, except for a few books, on Luther's German Bible. He continued to issue the Scriptures in Dutch and French. So highly esteemed were his Bibles by Dutch Lutherans that for more than a century his 1534 edition, which was a revision of the 1526 version, based entirely on Luther's translation, was frequently reprinted and was known as the Liesveldt Bible.

In issuing the Scriptures in Protestant versions, van Liesveldt ran counter to the policies of Emperor Charles V. After a number of less disastrous brushes with the law, he was arrested for printing a Bible in 1542. He was found guilty and beheaded for this offense on November 28, 1545. His widow, Marie Ancxt, and their son, Hansken van Liesveldt, carried on the business until 1563.

Besides Bibles, van Liesveldt printed a law book, a few almanacs, some Lutheran tracts, and a little popular literature. He seems to have printed entirely in the vernacular. Van Liesveldt was an accurate, scholarly printer. His Bibles are lavishly illustrated.

One of the marks of Jacob van Liesveldt, here reproduced, represents an arch from which



hangs the printer's house-sign, the arms of the Counts of Artois. Beneath this is his motto: *Fortitudo mea deus* ("God is my strength"). Below, two cherubs support a shield which is doubtless the printer's merchant's mark, for other printers used variations of the design. (That of Andreas Fritag of Strasbourg is a particularly close parallel.) It is composed of a normal chevron imposed on a reversed chevron. From the top point of the lozenge formed by this imposition extends a cross which is placed between the printer's initials at the top of the shield. At the ends of the reversed chevron and at the top of the cross are X-crosses.

The X-cross has been traced to the X of the XP, the well-known abbreviation of the name of Christ, usually written as a monogram. Probably, however, it has a more primitive origin. The X-cross and the interlocked chevrons of V's were probably archaic symbols of a type of which the swastika is the best-known example; once, fertility signs; later, good luck charms.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE  
LIBRARY

## THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

**WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP:** for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, I (1931), 338; IV (1934), 359; XII (1942), 762; XIV (1944), 339-48; XV (1945), 324-38; XVIII (1948), 1-23.

**VICTORIA E. HARGRAVE** was born August 22, 1913, at Ripon, Wisconsin. She received her A.B. degree from Ripon College in 1934, her Library Diploma from the University of Wisconsin Library School in 1938, and her M.A. from the University of Chicago in 1947. After three years' high-school experience, she was appointed extension librarian at Iowa State College in 1938. She left this post in 1944 to become librarian of the Lane Library at Ripon College, where she remained for two years. At present she is librarian of the Pfeiffer Library at MacMurray College for Women. She has contributed several articles to professional journals.

**RUTH KRAEMER**, director of the library at Doane College, Crete, Nebraska, was born at Comstock, Nebraska, in 1905. After receiving her A.B. degree from Doane College in 1927, she served as a teacher-librarian in the Nebraska public schools. She received her B.S. from the University of Denver School of Librarianship in 1939 and in the same year became librarian of the Thomas Jefferson High School in Council Bluffs, Iowa. Her present appointment dates from 1941. During her connection with Doane College she has acted as an officer in the Nebraska Library Association and has received her M.S. degree from the University of Illinois Library School.

**ALEX LADENSON:** for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, XIV (1944), 160. Mr. Ladenson is assistant librarian in charge of Acquisition and Preparation at the Chicago Public Library. He was president of the Chicago Regional Group of Catalogers and Classifiers, 1946-47. He is a member of the Planning Board of the Illinois Library Association.

**GWENDOLYN LLOYD**, first assistant in the Reference Department, University of Southern California Library, was born in Glasgow, Montana, October 23, 1912. She received an A.B. degree in education from the Florida State College for Women. Her B.S. and M.A. degrees in library science were obtained at the University of Illinois. She held a General Education Board fellowship during her year of graduate study, 1941-42. Before accepting her present position in 1947, Miss Lloyd had held library appoint-

ments at the University of Florida, at Baylor University, and at the University of Illinois. Her war service included three years as a WAVE officer in the Division of Air Navigation, U.S. Hydrographic Office, Washington, D.C. She is the author of "Sources for Biographical Data on United Nations Personnel," *Special Libraries*, XXXVIII (September, 1947); "Are You Stymied by U.N. Documents?," *Library Journal*, LXXII (October 1, 15; November 1, 15, 1947).

**EDGAR A. SCHULER** was born April 9, 1905, at Garner, Iowa. He was educated at Morning-side College (B.A., 1928), the University of Minnesota (M.A., 1929), and Harvard University (Ph.D., 1933). From 1933 to 1943 Mr. Schuler was attached to the Department of Sociology at Louisiana State University. During this period he engaged in research on social status and farm tenure in connection with the Resettlement Administration. From 1943 to 1946 he was a member of the research staff of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U.S. Department of Agriculture. Since 1946 he has been associate professor in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at Michigan State College. Mr. Schuler's publications have included contributions to governmental studies and numerous articles in periodical journals. He is the author of *Social Status and Farm Tenure—Attitudes and Social Conditions of Corn Belt and Cotton Belt Farmers* (1938), *Survey of Radio Listeners in Louisiana* (1943), *Trends in Farm Family Levels and Standards of Living* (with Rachel Rowe Swiger; 1947).

**GUS TURBEVILLE** was born January 20, 1923, at Turbeville, South Carolina. He received his B.A. at Vanderbilt University in 1944 and his M.A. from Louisiana State University in 1946. At present he is studying for his doctorate at Michigan State College. Articles by Mr. Turbeville have appeared in *Social Forces* and the *Peabody Journal of Education*.

**LOGAN WILSON** is dean of Newcomb College and professor of sociology, Tulane University. He was educated at the University of Texas (M.A., 1926) and at Harvard University (M.A., 1938; Ph.D., 1939). Mr. Wilson has taught at Harvard, Radcliffe, Duke, and at the universities of Maryland, Texas, and Kentucky. He is the author of *The Academic Man* (1942) and *Twentieth Century Sociology* (1945). He contributed to *Higher Education in the South* (1947) and has published frequent articles in professional journals.

## REVIEWS

*Government and Mass Communications: A Report from the Commission on Freedom of the Press.* By ZECHARIAH CHAFEE, JR. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947. 2 vols. Pp. xvii+vi+830. \$7.50.

*Government and Mass Communications* is a magnificent discussion. It is in the tradition of Mill, Bagehot, and Dicey. Chafee examines critically the relations of the state to the principal media of communication: newspapers, magazines, motion pictures, and radio. Because the work is an admirable discussion and a treatment of substantial problems faced by a democracy, it should be in all libraries and should be read by many thousands of citizens.

Mr. Chafee is Langdell Professor of Law in Harvard University and author of the classic *Free Speech in the United States*, which deals, largely historically, with the protection afforded through law of the American's free speech. The present work, in many respects an analytical development of topics introduced in the earlier work, was done as a part of the program of the Commission on Freedom of the Press, of which Professor Chafee served as vice-chairman.

Chafee states at the outset that government acts in regard to mass communications in three main ways: (1) by the use of governmental powers to limit or suppress discussion; (2) by affirmative governmental activities for encouraging the communication of news and ideas; and (3) as a party to communications. These modes of action provide the organizing principle of the work. Under the first topic the author deals with the way restrictions work generally, with libel, group libel, inaccuracies and the correction of inaccuracies, with the various aspects of obscenity, with treason and sedition in peace and war, with contempt of court, and, finally, with censorship in wartime. Under the second main topic Chafee deals with what he calls the traffic regulations for the press (e.g., Federal Communications Commission assignment of radio wave bands), with labor laws, and, in an extended section, with the antitrust laws. In the final part of his work he discusses the government as an active participant in the business of newsgathering and in radio.

Chafee is a specialist in law, and yet, in the best and correct sense of the word, he is a generalist. His method is basically to outline the way a certain legal sanction operates, the arguments for and against the present situation, remedies or changes which have been suggested, and how they would work. He believes: "Reason is more imperfect than we used to believe. Yet it remains the best guide we have." Chafee's method of dealing with his subject matter leads the reader to think more accurately about freedom of thought and speech. He analyzes the very real problems the citizens of the United States have in protecting their rights and points out the ways in which the citizen can act.

This reviewer has likened Chafee's work to Mill, Bagehot, and Dicey because *Government and Mass Communications* makes a contribution to the conditions for maintaining freedom of thought, speech, and press, much as each in a different way did in *On Liberty*, *The English Constitution*, and *Law and Public Opinion in England during the Nineteenth Century*. A reading, or rereading, of these books is recommended to one who is concerned—as is Chafee—with the kind of a free, democratic society which can be achieved.

Chafee used Mill's great essay as a binding post for several discussions. One feels continually that each Chafee discussion of necessary and wise governmental activity in press matters is coupled with the admonition that "unwise State activity must be steadily resisted. . . . The First Amendment is the gun behind the door which must never be allowed to rust" (p. 29). Chafee intelligently, and at times brilliantly, explores what is wise and what is unwise. Mill's position on State activity was more absolute: ". . . the sole end for which mankind are warranted individually and collectively, in interfering with the liberty of action of any of their number, is self-protection" (*On Liberty*). Perhaps Chafee would not go so far; indeed he is aware that twentieth-century laissez faire positions are a far cry from those of the nineteenth.<sup>1</sup> And yet,

<sup>1</sup> But see the late Professor Henry C. Simons' *Economic Policy for a Free Society* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948).



when Chafee enters the legislative arena of the United Nations as a member of the United States delegation to the Conference on Freedom of Information, he shows the Mill influence while putting to practical use the learning of the work under review.

Chafee undertakes to follow a path between the extremes of freedom and the extremes of control. One may compare the work of Dicey and recall that his was a perspective on the world as he saw it, not absolute judgment. Dicey said that his "speculations" were "written under conditions which make it [the work] rather an analytical than an historical document, and introduce into every statement . . . a large element of conjecture." Dicey maintained that much social legislation we take for granted today was "collectivistic" in that—to confer benefits upon the mass of people—it substituted bureaucratic decision for individual freedom. Chafee's discussion of governmental action, including proposals to deal with group libel, the legal right of response to items in the press, the position of lower courts in contempt cases, etc., has a similar quality. This is here mentioned because sound, analytical work of one who is conjecturing on events passing before his eyes has, of necessity, it seems to this reviewer, a "conservative" quality. This, in the opinion of this reviewer, enhances the importance of such writings for the "liberal" or "radical."

Consider, for example, the discussion of group libel. Chafee outlines the few state laws aimed at providing legal sanctions which may be invoked by a member of a religion or race which, as a group, has been vilified in the press. He concludes that such laws are unsatisfactory. Chafee feels that the less that can be said publicly, the more that will be said privately, and that the remedy for bad discussion is good discussion. Similarly, after an able presentation of the various suggestions as to a legal "right of response," patterned after the French method, Chafee concludes that corrections or responses forced by laws will not achieve their purpose. Only better newspapers and an increased professional obligation to tell the truth will remedy today's evils of vilification and "slanted" stories. Of course, he does not rule out libel suits.

When the Labor government of England in the autumn of 1947 proposed to reform the House of Lords, the American newspapers and magazines responded with cries of alarm, how-

ever mild. Those who had read Bagehot had a different perspective; Bagehot's *The English Constitution* was a book in which the author had viewed British institutions both historically and analytically. Thus, in 1867, he wrote that "the danger of the House of Lords . . . is, that it may never be reformed. . . Its danger is not in assassination, but atrophy; not abolition, but decline." Chafee has studied the history of press institutions in the United States and he has dealt with government-communications relationships analytically. In the course of *Government and Mass Communications* he states, as did the Commission on Freedom of the Press as a whole, that the economic concentration in the communications field is an extremely serious development, an octopus-like threat to the free communication of ideas. Chafee suggests use of the Sherman Antitrust Act—as was done in the government case against the Associated Press to get a wider use of the A.P. news report. He indicates, however, the weakness and limitations of the Sherman Act and warns against any considerable reliance on it.

Chafee's discussion of the administrative errors of former Treasury Department activities with regard to customs seizures of obscene and other questionable literature, and of the Post Office Department with regard to mailing privileges is, at least to this reviewer, in the vein of Dicey. Dicey did not like the administrative process and administrative law, but he probably knew they were "here to stay." Chafee does not like the power which the Treasury has over foreign imports of books and pictures (via the customs) and which the Post Office has over mailing privileges, but he knows that it must exist in some form. He is enthusiastic, therefore, about the policies which have been made by Huntington Cairns for the Treasury since 1934, when Mr. Cairns became special legal adviser to the Secretary. Similarly, Chafee feels that the Farleys and Walkers and Hannegans got somewhat straightened out by the Supreme Court in the *Esquire* case (*Hannegan v. Esquire*, 327 U.S. 146 [1946]) as to the interpretation of what is a "contribution to the public good" in denying a cheap mailing privilege. The entire discussion of postal censorship is extremely rewarding; numerous procedural improvements are suggested.

Similarly, Chafee's discussion of contempt of court is admirable. He was fortunate in having the United States Supreme Court's opinion in the *Bridges* case (*Bridges v. California*, 314 U.S. 252 [1941], and *Los Angeles Times-Mirror Co. v.*

*Superior Court, ibid.*) to discuss. This was, in fact, two cases. A conservative newspaper, the *Los Angeles Times*, had commented on a pending court case involving the sentencing of two labor unionists who had been convicted of assaulting nonunion truck drivers. The *Times* said that the judge would be making a "serious mistake" if he did not send the defendants "to the jute mill." The editor and publisher were fined \$100 for contempt of court. At about the same time the *Times's* bitter enemy, Harry Bridges, the radical labor leader, got into a similar situation. A California judge was hearing a jurisdictional dispute between an A.F. of L. and a C.I.O. union. Bridges wired the Secretary of Labor (and his telegram was published in the press) that his union did "not intend to allow State courts to override the majority votes of members" in choosing representatives under an N.L.R.B. election. There was a motion for a new trial; hence the case was still pending. Bridges was fined for contempt. Both Bridges and the *Times* were vindicated by the Supreme Court. The decision was five: four, with Hugo L. Black writing the majority opinion, and the quixotic Felix Frankfurter writing for the minority. The two opinions, ably discussed by Chafee, bear the reading of all citizens. The handling of the "clear and present danger" test by Justice Black should long stand as a prime contribution to practical freedom of speech. Such materials can and should be used to a greater degree in college and university classes. Library study groups should use them for discussions. Indeed, Chafee's book suggests literally dozens of topics for library groups to use as the basis for further reading and for discussion.

Early in *Government and Mass Communications* Chafee says that the intellectual elite no longer have the political importance they had at the time of the passage of the First Amendment (p. 17). This is true. The role of the school, college, and library, as agents of communication, becomes increasingly clear. Just as the newspapers, magazines, films, and radio are agents of mass communication, the schools, colleges, and libraries are the media of personal communication. Freedom of the press can be preserved, but unless the educational forces in the country can provide the means for increased attention to the methods and ways of thought, mass communications are not enough. Indeed, the ability to read, understand, and evaluate what the

mass media spew out becomes our prime need today.

University of Chicago

REUBEN FRODIN

*Freedom of the Press: A Framework of Principle: A Report from the Commission on Freedom of the Press.* By WILLIAM ERNEST HOCKING. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947. Pp. xi+243. \$3.00.

The researches and deliberations of the Commission on Freedom of the Press have resulted, to date, in the publication of *A Free and Responsible Press: A General Report*, and of several special studies dealing with such aspects of the larger problem as the relation of government to mass communication, the self-regulation undertaken by the movie and the radio industries, and international mass communication. Appended to the general report is a "Summary of Principle: A Statement of the Commission," the several points of which represent an agreement on principle reached by the members as a result of their fact-finding and discussion over a period of years. Now, with this volume, comes a fuller expression of the principles, together with a statement of the philosophical arguments upon which they are based.

The need for a fuller statement of the Commission's terse "Summary" will not be questioned, for the members shaped their recommendation in the light of conceptions which had been overlooked or ignored or minimized in previous discussions of press freedom. On the other hand, the need for a re-examination of the problem of press freedom in America has been and is being questioned. The attitude of the American press toward the work of the Commission has been one of wary skepticism, and some American papers have published reviews of this and other publications of the Commission, the burden of which has been: (1) that the members are not journalists and therefore are not qualified to examine the press, and (2) what was good enough for Milton is good enough for us. Nor has the press alone been blind to the need for such a redefinition of principle. Anyone taking the trouble to read the comments of the 125 well-known Americans who contributed to the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch Symposium on the Freedom of the Press* (1938) will find that the great majority believed that the freedom of the

press was in no danger from within or without. Of all the contributors, only three or four gave evidence of being aware of dangers more subtle than pressure from the advertisers or from the government.

Since this appears to be the prevailing attitude, Mr. Hocking is required to offer an argument which will show that a problem does exist and that its elements are so different from those traditionally associated with the problem that press freedom can no longer be fitted into the old framework of principle. His book, therefore, may be said to have four purposes: to define and document the problem; to discover the philosophical and legal bases for a framework of principle; and to present the indicated principles, first, for criticism and improvement and, second, as a common and unifying standard which will serve as a future guide in matters of press freedom.

Mr. Hocking establishes the existence of the problem by means of a brief discussion of the history of freedom of the press, by a longer examination of the philosophical concepts which have at various times supported the notion of press freedom, and by a penetrating analysis of the consequences of total liberty of expression in an era which has also thrown open to debate all principles and all criteria which might help decide debate. We have, he finds, a wide variety of opinions, broadly distributed, with no standards of judgment or unifying framework within which debate may be concluded. "Will there arise in this land," asks Hocking, "what has never existed here, a mass mind determined in the liberty to think as it pleases, which is the direct reverse of the duty to think as the evidence requires?" He continues:

Does our version of press freedom submit too readily to its own evils as necessary implications of liberty? Has the liberty of each, in our system, made mincemeat of the liberty of a united all? Seeing the necessity of diversity, is it true that a certain treasuring of diversity, as if for its own sake, has encouraged the freedom of every weed as having a right to live, so that the one thing that has no freedom is—the garden?

The American press which must answer this question is characterized by a multiformity of media, a variety of contents, a host of interests to serve, an enormous reach, and a complex entanglement with the economic, cultural, political, and educational life of the community. Moreover, through its acquisition of new func-

tions—among them that of publicity and that of emotional interpretation—it has the power and the liberty and the inclination to *degrade* man's culture, his arts, and his values.

This then, in brief, is the American press today—a thing of immense and unprecedented power for good, or for evil. It is therefore fitting, even necessary, that we reconsider freedom of the press and that we seek some framework of principle to guide us.

But how are we to arrive at a foundation for this framework? The problem reverts to the old, old one of the limits of individual liberty in a self-governing society. Is it to be the unrestrained liberty of the weed, the constrained liberty of the garden, or some better "shape of liberty which instead of undermining culture builds a strong, organic, and fertile culture"?

This problem leads Hocking into the second major portion of his work—a long and closely-reasoned consideration of the meaning of freedom and the problem of liberty in general. It is impossible to detail the argument in this space. The essential principle evolving from the discussion is that the right to freedom, in society, is not unconditional but carries with it the necessity to assume and perform a duty. It is important to add that the fact that a right is conditional does not mean that it can be canceled because of error in its use. Errors are inevitable in man's struggle toward truth or the best way. But what does cancel the *ground* of right (not necessarily the *legal* right), "is deliberate or irresponsible going-wrong adopted as an individual policy. Here the good will of the claimant, which is his good faith with society, is purposely put aside; the resulting errors are not the tolerable errors incident to a process of learning."

When Hocking comes to apply this general principle to the liberty of the press in particular, as he does in the third portion of the book, it is clear that "freedom" does not mean merely freedom of the press *from* compulsions of one kind or another, but freedom of the press and of access to the press so that it may perform its proper function in a free society. The chief concern is not the right of the press to be free in expression, but the right of the society to be adequately informed regarding its own affairs. To put it another way, a free press is necessary to a self-governing people. Its freedom is therefore not an end in itself, but a means to maintain the freedom (in the fullest sense of the term) of the society of which it is a part. The condition of its

right to freedom, therefore, is the adequacy with which it fulfils that function. When it fails in this responsibility, it is in danger of losing its right and may become subject to restrictions or compulsions which are in themselves dangers to society.

If it is agreed that the press holds its freedom on these terms, it becomes apparent that the American press is inviting restrictions. For it is beset with many impairments to its adequate functioning. The remainder of the book is devoted to a discussion of these impairments and to the attempt to work out principles which will lead the press to responsibility and at the same time protect it from dangerous restrictions and compulsions. This is an area of knotty problems, of course, and there will be many who will disagree with both the principles and the suggested means of implementing them. One of the problems, for example, is insuring that important questions receive adequate treatment in the press. The principle enunciated is: *The state may act to supervise or regulate the intermingling of the free products of expression so that what is true and valuable in these products may have a fighting chance with the kind of public actually present.* Overproduction of expression is the real cause of the difficulty, but Hocking would not limit expression. The alternative approach is to assist the consumers to find their way through the profusion, both by a program to increase their capacity to think as they read, and by governmental encouragement, but not control, of a national press which would limit itself to significant questions and would present the alternative positions with equal force.

Another possible function of the state is expressed in this fashion: *The state may extend the scope of present legal remedies, if a given type of abuse amounts to 'poisoning the wells of public opinion.'* This function would not involve censorship, but rather: (1) a requirement of correction of a demonstrable falsehood, and (2) "an extension of the purport of the concept of fraud to include instances of concealed purpose or concealed authorship in news statements or discussion of opinion." The author does not dwell upon the problem of proving "concealed purpose."

It should be said, at this point, that Mr. Hocking and his colleagues of the Commission are not advocating government control. They recognize explicitly that "the public interest in the functions of school and press cannot be secured without a basis of private enterprise."

Their most weighty recommendation and their chief hope is that the press itself, though self-awareness and self-discipline, will make itself more responsible. They fully recognize the danger of compulsions of any kind but they feel that the existence of a knotty problem should not deter attempts at its solution.

In conclusion, it can be said that this book achieves the first three of its purposes: It establishes the existence of the problem; it provides a foundation for a framework of principle; and it presents the indicated principles for criticism. Whether the principles can and will be accepted as they stand is yet to be seen. For the present, at least, the book will be most valuable as a basis for the discussion of a pressing issue. It will not be widely read—it is a subtle and difficult book—but it seems to me that it would provide admirable material for the sort of treatment given the "great books" by discussion groups. The problems it deals with touch on librarianship at many points, and librarians will want to study it. The importance of the selection of issues and of the adequate presentation of alternative solutions; the problem of the limited capacity of the average American for reading and thinking, and what can be done about it; and the matter of censorship in all its manifestations are ever in the front of the librarian's mind. This book will sharpen his thinking, stimulate him by its perceptions and its keen analysis of the real dangers to and from press freedom, and will perhaps lead him to a clearer conception of what his position should be.

*Freedom of the Press* is, says Hocking, a personal statement, and he has underlined this fact by printing in the footnotes some of the objections of his colleagues to certain of his points. Nevertheless, it is clear that the work may be taken as a fair expression of the rationale behind the Commission's recommendations. As such, and as one of the products of the most elaborate attempt yet made to approach the unsolved and perhaps unsolvable problem of press freedom, it is and will remain a most significant document.

STANLEY E. GWYNN

University of Chicago Library

*From Papyrus to Print: A Bibliographical Miscellany.* By GEORGE HERBERT BUSHNELL. London: Grafton & Co., 1947 Pp. 218. 15s.

The subtitle calls this book "a bibliographical miscellany." No doubt as to the "miscel-

lany." Just how "bibliographical" it is opens a fine chance for fiery debate and discussion as to what we mean by "bibliographical."

This is not a bit "bibliographical" if by that you demand distinction between "editions" and "issues"; or if you expect sage and sober discussions whether a book  $x$  cm. high with paper folded in fours is a quarto or a folio; or if you want lists of titles relating to papyrus and to print, or are seeking dozens of other variations of "bibliography."

It is truly "bibliographical" if you are willing to open the doors to genial, kindly, discursive, rambling comments and reflections and remarks and observations on a score or more of bookish topics. A pleasing—and none too common—proof that one librarian not only knows about the books he cares for but knows their contents and can talk about them in a way to make the reader want to tread farther along the path here pointed out in really inviting fashion.

The manufacture of papyrus, the invention of printing, the Alexandrian library, St. Andrews University Library, Scottish bookbinding, the ideal college library—things like these might be expected from a librarian. Yes, and would they be deadily dull and pedantic? Perhaps, yes. But here, not in the slightest. Profound? Well, no. Inviting? Yes, doubly yes. Decidedly bookish in pictures sketched of Andrew Lang, Robert Burns, Lavengro, "L.E.L.," Stevenson, Harriet Beecher Stowe, other authors and writers. It rejoices any librarian to see that another craftsman can not only write about books but be so entertaining, instructive, pleasing, delighting.

HARRY M. LYDENBERG

*Greensboro  
North Carolina*

*Book-collecting as a Hobby: In a Series of Letters to Everyman.* By P. H. MUIR. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1947. Pp. 181+x. \$3.00.

Here is the American edition of a literate "how-to-do" book for neophyte bibliophiles, good reading for anyone who, in Mr. Muir's words, has "the root of the matter in him." Professionals know Mr. Muir, bookseller and modest collector himself, he says, for his contributions to bibliographic journals and through his own *Points*, 1st series, 1874-1930, 2nd series, 1866-1934.

The American edition adds an eighth letter

(Letter VII) "How To Read a Bookseller's Catalogue," a list of abbreviations commonly used in catalogs, books for further reading, and additional illustrations. Books cited are the same as in the English edition and are mostly British, but the few necessary adjustments to American idiom have been made: "penny bloods" are "dime novels" here, and so on. Otherwise the seven original letters remain virtually the same.

The novice is set straight at once. Collecting, says Mr. Muir, is method more than money. He suggests how to begin; where (in bookshops, looking at any books that interest); what to collect; how to tell first editions and why; and how to recognize the perfect book. In his relaxed hands the technicalities of states, issues, impressions, and the like, are seen for what they are, beguiling clues to the human drama that always takes place when the author is done and his book is physically assembled.

Librarians may want to remember Letter V, "How To Judge Values," for the next implacable owner of some half-calf relic fresh from another attic. The new Letter VII, "How To Read a Bookseller's Catalogue," may tempt people who have been too busy for years, or thought they were; and Letter VIII, "A Short History of Book Production," makes fine reading for beginners.

In a field that invites snobbery Mr. Muir remains independent, cool to whims and fashions, mildly impatient, one suspects, with the overgenial school of A. E. Newton book-collecting thought. Here, as elsewhere at more length, he puts through "heretical speculations" whatever bibliographic dogmas appear to him less pertinent now, given the conditions of modern book-making.

His lack of pretentiousness may deceive. But only scholars wise in virtually a total field may know when to make exceptions and find the courage to do so. This small book demonstrates both capacities, being right for beginners as much for what it postpones as for what it tells. Stress on independence based on scholarship hints that real collectors, like real readers, may never be many.

Throughout, the letters abound in bookish asides, like the curious convention that key books like Boswell should always bring a sound price even when, like Boswell, they may not be particularly rare; or the novel suggestion that the price of a Kelmscott Chaucer may be a fair clue to the current money market. Like the comments on reference books, such asides are re-



freshly informative and informal without being chatty.

In fact, Mr. Muir's style alone should interest anyone who likes clear writing without resort to formula, an accomplishment at which the English appear to excel. True, Everyman here is every man in the world of books, very properly not the world of Gray and Leary nor the world of Bryson or Rudolf Flesch. Yet the literature of American librarianship, written by bookmen for themselves, offers few paragraphs to match Mr. Muir's for clear exposition of exact detail.

James Hendrickson designed the book well. Its sixteen illustrations, combining aptness and human appeal, are assembled within Letter III. They might have come more conveniently at the end.

More books like this one should narrow the present gap between connoisseurs and popular educators, a gap defensively pleasing to both, it seems at times. The hobby envisaged here, the collecting of reasonably available books at reasonable cost, may deserve more regard by librarians in the perennial quest for genuinely educational projects for adults. The true collector, says Mr. Muir, reads his books. And no one can assemble even a few books according to logical plan without widening his span of curiosity, deepening his insight into the complex history of culture.

MARLAN S. CARNOVSKY

Chicago, Illinois

---

*A History of the Council on Books in Wartime, 1942-1946.* New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1946. Pp. 126. \$1.00.

How one man's idea burgeoned into a multi-million-dollar publishing and book promotion enterprise is recounted in *A History of the Council on Books in Wartime, 1942-1946*. Publication of the Armed Services Editions was the most notable of the Council's accomplishments. These books were designed to supply recreational reading at a price which would permit the Army and Navy to issue them as expendable items, to be passed from man to man without recording. Eleven hundred and eighty titles were printed in editions so large that the number of copies reached 123,500,000. The cost was held to about six cents per copy.

Armed Services Editions represented a triumph, not only in mechanical production, but

in bringing authors, publishers, and printers into agreements which ran counter to all normal ideas of royalties and trade practices. These little paper-backed books did not win the war, but there is abundant evidence that they helped mightily in sustaining morale among our men abroad and at sea.

Overseas Editions, many in French, German, and Italian translations, were printed for distribution to civilians in allied and liberated countries. They were intended to reflect the war aims and democratic spirit of the United States. Copies distributed numbered 3,600,000.

More familiar to stay-at-home librarians were the Council's radio programs, "Words At War," "Books Are Bullets," and "Fighting Words." The wartime reading lists, "The Home Front," "This Is the Enemy," and many others were compiled by a committee headed by the late Jennie M. Flexner, of the New York Public Library. The "Imperative Book" promotion, book forums and fairs were other outgrowths of the Council's belief that "Books are weapons in the war of ideas."

As notable, perhaps, as the measurable results was the very fact that members of a highly individualistic and competitive industry could be brought together in a voluntary, nonprofit enterprise. There were some who balked at this co-operative venture, and there was fear that it would undermine free enterprise, the profit motive, and the price structure. The important point is, however, that it was made to work and to achieve notable results.

The *History* is quite detailed, and appendices list the titles of the books published and the radio programs. It records a unique episode in publishing. May there never be need for it to serve as a pattern for the rebirth of a Council on Books in Wartime.

RALPH MUNN

Carnegie Library  
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

---

*A History of Libraries in Great Britain and North America.* By ALBERT PREDEEK. Translated by LAWRENCE S. THOMPSON. Chicago: American Library Association, 1947. Pp. x+178. \$3.25.

In his Translator's Preface Mr. Thompson has written, "There is relatively little in the first two volumes of the great Milkau-Leyh

*Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft* which does not have a counterpart in the Anglo-American literature of historical bibliography and library administration. But the third volume . . . represents a field which has not been systematically treated" since Edwards, Savage, Clark, and Thompson made their "important contributions" (p. v). If Mr. Thompson's estimate of the earlier portions of the *Handbuch* are correct, and this opinion might be questioned, one cannot but wonder why he believes that the portion here translated departs to any appreciable extent from the pattern of the whole. Leaning heavily upon secondary sources, especially the work of Edward Edwards for the treatment of British libraries, superficially buttressed with an impressive bibliography which the author has obviously read neither wisely nor too well, and filled with errors of fact and interpretation, these chapters contribute nothing to existing knowledge of library history in either Great Britain or the United States. This is especially unfortunate since the reputation of the *Handbuch* will give the treatment an authenticity, at least among librarians, that it does not deserve.

Presumably much of the material for the section on American libraries was collected while Mr. Predeck was touring this country in 1937, and the manuscript reflects the hasty composition that such a hurried investigation dictated. As a result, the presentation is more an outline than a synthesis, and the few portions which deal with the general historical background of the country are quite unrelated to the concurrent growth in library resources. Throughout, one is irritated by the excessive emphasis on German contributions to American libraries, and by the constant reference to the book poverty of America relative to the wealth of such institutions in Mr. Predeck's native land. Criticism, at this point, must, however, be tempered by the realization that the author had necessarily to write with at least one eye on Berchtesgaden and that the manuscript was being prepared primarily for a German audience.

As indicated above, errors are, indeed, distressingly numerous, and most of them must be charged against the author, not the translator. Even a rather rapid reading of the text reveals an imposing list:

The first college on American soil was not founded in 1638 from the legacy of John Harvard (p. 85); it had been established two years before.

Contact between American and European "science and libraries" began long before "the dawn of the nineteenth century" (p. 88). In fact, the author himself mentions such communication during the Colonial period of American history.

Subscription and proprietary libraries were not "usually connected with academies, museums, and philosophical and scientific societies" (p. 90). One of the major characteristics of the subscription library was its corporate independence.

The "golden age" of the social libraries did not last "through the final quarter of the nineteenth century" (p. 91). By 1850 it was becoming obvious to all advocates of public libraries that the social library as an institutional form had reached its zenith and had begun to decline.

The success of the school district libraries was hardly "enormous" (p. 92) or even *ein grosser* as given in the German original. As Dr. Joeckel has pointed out, these struggling little collections dragged out a moribund existence to an inglorious close.

Franklin had not "thought out the idea of a public library" (p. 92); he claimed only the honor of establishing the first proprietary library in North America.

The municipality of Boston did not "levy an annual tax of \$5,000" for the support of its proposed public library, and the enabling act, whereby the Massachusetts legislature granted the city the right to establish this library can scarcely be called "the world's first library law" (p. 93). The act merely stipulated that "no appropriation for the . . . Library shall exceed the sum of five thousand dollars in any one year."

In 1848 the Astor family library had not "passed into municipal ownership in New York" (p. 94).

The Massachusetts enabling act of 1851, which granted towns the right to appropriate public money for the support of town libraries, was not an "extension" of the "Boston library law" (p. 94); it was a direct outgrowth of the desire for a public library in Wayland.

Massachusetts, not New Jersey (p. 94), in 1811 laid the foundation for the first state library. New Jersey did not establish such a collection until 1824.

One cannot but wonder what the author meant when he said: "The golden age of special libraries was about the turn of the century" (p. 97).

Charles K. Adams was president of Cornell

and Wisconsin, but never of the University of Michigan (p. 99).

Predeek's discussion of the origin of departmental collections in academic libraries (p. 103) is so badly garbled that there is insufficient space in the present review for the examination of its errors. Departmental libraries just did not develop that way.

The treatment of the Carnegie benefactions is misleading (p. 108) since it conveys the impression that his gifts were directed only toward library establishment and that the Carnegie Corporation was concerned entirely with libraries.

In 1895, not 1905, Herbert Putnam was appointed librarian of the Boston Public Library (p. 109), though it should be pointed out that the original German gives the date correctly.

Finally, the author has interpreted the library institutes of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, as following the pattern of the institutes of German universities (p. 126), which, of course, they do not resemble.

There are also numerous, and rather unimportant, errors in dates—Boston's first public library branch was opened in 1871, not in 1870; the Sterling Memorial Library at Yale was built in 1930-31, not in 1925; Harper Library at the University of Chicago was built in 1912, not in 1911, etc., etc.,—but there seems little reason for cataloging them fully here. In general the translation is competently done, though there are a few instances of cumbersome constructions, always a danger in translating from the German, and why was *erst die Anfänge* of the original rendered "vestigial beginnings" (p. 117)?

However, the real shortcoming of the work lies less in its factual inaccuracies than in the general poverty of its treatment. In part this may be the result of compression, but certainly even this limited space could have been more advantageously employed to give a true synthesis of library development in the two major English-speaking countries of the world. In his Preface, Mr. Thompson argues that we have no comparable treatment—a half-loaf is better than none! But if the loaf be not well prepared, its nutritive value is questionable. The history of the American library movement still remains to be written; perhaps it cannot be set down until innumerable students have done much more painstaking spadework in the primary sources which are as yet untouched. In the mean-

time, this book will be mistakenly characterized and quoted again and again as *the* authoritative study. Already one reviewer has begun the trend with the assertion that "It will provide an eligible point of departure for teaching and research in this field." Or does he mean that we should *depart* as far from it as possible?

J. H. SHERA

Graduate Library School  
University of Chicago

*List of Theological Subject Headings.* Compiled by JULIA PETTEE. 2d ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1947. Pp. 653. \$10.00.

Theological librarians owe a great debt to Union Theological Seminary in New York and to Miss Julia Pettee, for many years its head cataloger, for constructive leadership in technical details of library science. After long study and experimentation in the problems of library classification, Miss Pettee produced a unique system to fit the theological needs of Union. It has proved most usable in a number of other seminary and special religious libraries.

Along with classification goes the problem of adequate subject headings. Miss Pettee has not failed us here either. In 1924 she published in mimeographed form a list of the subject headings then in use at Union Seminary. This list has been a valued reference tool for the theological librarian. Now appears a revised edition of this work with the corrections and expansions of two decades. The form of this volume reveals the scope and practical concern of the compiler. Recognizing that the Library of Congress list of subject headings is the standard for most general library practice, she has incorporated, with three exceptions, all of the theological headings from the Library of Congress with those of Union Seminary. By a system of symbols, she has indicated which are common to both and which are unique in one or the other library. The chief exceptions are the voluminous subjects: "Bible," "Jesus Christ," and "Folklore." The Union list is revised to include all corrections to 1939, and the Library of Congress list is based upon its *Subject Headings* . . . (4th ed.) and the Wilson cumulations to January, 1947.

The treatment of subjects under the headings "Bible" and "Christ" (L.C.: "Jesus Christ") is particularly important to theologi-

cal librarians. Here the Union Seminary list adds a large number of useful headings, and particularly under "Bible." One question may be raised regarding the consistency of the sub-headings for the life of Christ. We find events in the life of Jesus listed in their alphabetic order: "Christ. Baptism;" "Christ. Nativity"; "Christ. Passion"; etc. The heading: "Christ. Life" is used for critical interpretations of the whole life—with one surprising exception: "Christ. Life. Entry into Jerusalem." In harmony with the general scheme, this should surely be a case of direct subdivision: "Christ. Entry into Jerusalem."

An Appendix, listing denominations by countries, is extremely valuable because of the general information which is included regarding origin, date of founding, schisms, mergers, and other organizational matters. The geographical division here is especially instructive, since it supplements the denominational arrangement of the main list. There are 994 numbered denominations in this Appendix, besides a large number of cross-references from unofficial titles. Subject entries for the denominations refer by number to items here.

A question that has long troubled the reviewer about both the Library of Congress and the Union Seminary practice is the strange variations in the form of denominational entries. Why do we have "Baptists," "Moravians," and "Mennonites" along with "Methodist church," "Lutheran church," and "Congregational and Christian churches"? Perhaps our experts can take up this problem and work out some principles for the guidance of the rest of us.

The book is reproduced from typed copy on excellent paper with ample margins for insertion of corrections and additions. The typing and proofreading are superior, but the misprint "hoeverment" slipped in on page 36.

This volume should be basic equipment for every theological library and for all general libraries which have large collections of religious material. The supplementary information and the definitions and classifications by a specialist in the field will prove helpful to many who use the Library of Congress list as their final authority. Small libraries may well use this list alone.

JANNETTE E. NEWHALL

*Andover-Harvard Theological Library  
Harvard University*

*Library Buildings for Library Service: Papers Presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 5-10, 1946.* Edited with an Introduction by HERMAN H. FUSSLER. ("University of Chicago Studies in Library Science.") Chicago: American Library Association, 1947. Pp. xiv+216. \$3.50.

This book, as its full title implies, is in the nature of a symposium on the problems of a library building. It is distinctly better than most symposium volumes because the program of the Library Institute was carefully planned to cover in an orderly way the problems involved; the speakers were in all cases well equipped for their specific assignments; and, finally, they managed in the main to confine themselves to their topics. Thus the volume has more coherence and continuity than is usual.

A single paper deals with the historic development of the library building, two address themselves to the service functions of the building, three to internal problems of administration and contents, two to relations with the architect, three to the engineering problems, respectively, of the building itself, its ventilation, and its illumination, and a final and wholly admirable paper by William M. Randall provides a useful synthesis. Save for minor exceptions which will be noted below, everyone seems to have made a thoughtful, thorough, and solid contribution.

The names of the authors form a list of blue chips. To this reader the outstanding pieces were prepared by Ralph Beals and his associates, dealing with the plan of service; by Ralph Ellsworth, who discusses the library building and the reader; and by William M. Randall, who has already been noted.

The Beals group, for example, provide an unusually good approach to the problem of studying the library plan by making sharp distinctions between the three programs of supply, guidance, and stimulation; and by presenting a concrete and sensible discussion of the written program for the building. Similarly Ellsworth, who concentrates on the university library, provides a useful distinction between the problems of general education, of advanced divisional study, and of research. Randall's synthesis is so rich that it alone is worth the book. From Randall it is difficult to forego some pertinent quotations. Thus:

We shall never learn to build a good library building by studying architecture or engineering or illumina-

tion or air conditioning, but only by finding out what is going to be done inside the building. And we shall not build a good library building by finding out what was done in a library building yesterday. . . .

The buildings which house our libraries today are not bad buildings or inadequate buildings because the men who planned them and who built them were fools. They are bad buildings because what goes on inside them now is different from what was planned to go on inside them. They are the unfortunate static elements in an ever-evolving world. . . .

Randall also gives useful concrete advice of which one sample may suffice:

Keep purely pattern language out of your descriptions, because pattern language is dangerous. Don't be content to say you need a reading-room to seat so many readers. Say who these readers are and what they will be doing, and who will be helping them to do it, and how this help will be given. You cannot be too detailed, too searching, too exhaustive in your study of building needs. . . .

Few of us, when frank, could assert we have met this standard.

In this galaxy of superior material the reviewer was able to find but one substandard item and that from a man from whom the library always expects the best. The essay by William Warner Bishop on "The Historic Development of Library Buildings" is really thin. There is a scattering collection of a number of important buildings arranged chronologically, but the reasons they are the way they are, expressed as a function of library thinking in their times, is quite missing. The comments on such buildings as the Newberry, the Library of Congress Annex, or on the Gothic style in library architecture are altogether sketchy. Comment on the Crerar Library without recognition of the special problems of that library is meaningless. The assertion that the Sterling Library is up to now the best university library, although probably correct, is gratuitous without demonstration as to why, and even the conclusion might be challenged. The essay ignores completely the divisional library development and especially the noteworthy contributions at the Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado, and the University of Colorado and the University of Nebraska. In all fairness to Dr. Bishop it should be remarked that his appearance at the Institute was only on the promise that he would not have to prepare a formal paper; that he spoke informally and extemporaneously, basing his comment largely on a series of lantern slides; and that the plans which he was discussing with the lantern slides have not

been incorporated in the book. It is very hard indeed to discuss architectural problems without graphic material, and it may be assumed that the speaker's remarks were more useful as given at the Institute than they appear when in print.

The length of time spent on criticism of this single essay is probably only a demonstration of the generally high standard set in detail by the rest of the papers. It can be said with only a slight paraphrase of a cliché that the book goes a considerable way toward filling a long-felt need.

Though the detail is excellent, it is possible to have some further reservations based on what the symposium attempted to do. It set out, among other things, to build on the hypothesis that there were enough common problems in all types of libraries to permit a generally useful discussion applicable to all types. Several of the writers have recognized the weakness of this hypothesis and in their own treatments have had to divide their comments. Ellsworth has pointed out that even in the limited framework of the university library alone there are three possible purposes which probably cannot be fully achieved by a single universal library. Harvard University has, of course, said the same thing when it built first the Houghton and then the Lamont libraries. The reviewer would, in fact, challenge the idea that, except for some engineering features, the public and the scholarly library have anything much in common save the name. Thus, though the book is a thoroughly valuable introduction to the problem of planning the library building, it will have to be supplemented by more detailed discussion of several sharply differentiated types, a discussion which for the most part does not yet exist, at least in book form.

A second difficulty was met by each of the authors in his own fashion. This is really a dilemma rather than a difficulty. The dilemma is that which arises in trying to combine a philosophical discussion with specific recommendations about sizes and shapes. Though less important than a proper philosophical approach to the problem, these practical recommendations are very important. They have not been too well handled in the book because they appear with no particular consistency as reading rather than as tabular matter. They are not complete and will be very hard to find by the reader who is looking specifically for them. The only choice he really has is to list these specific suggestions as he finds them interspersed



with broader argument. When he makes such a list he will find it full of lacunae. This will be more noticeable in papers by Ellsworth, Robert A. Miller, and the group headed by Pierce Butler than in the strictly engineering sections, but will be observed throughout the text. Saying this in no way detracts from the assertion that the level of such papers as Miller's and Butler's is very high indeed. It is perhaps only to say that a much larger and perhaps better planned book is still needed.

A final difficulty is probably implicit in any book, whether it be the work of a single eminent author or of a group of eminent ones. This is that the reader is inevitably exposed to a single view on a large number of controversial issues and, if he swallows the opinions, often the undocumented assertions, of the pundits, he may suffer serious metabolic consequences. Thus the reviewer found occasion to raise an eyebrow a number of times and may list a few examples. Ellsworth asserts an immediate need for a recognition of audio-visual materials on a scale which must surely exceed present needs; he urges that microfilm should be stored and used on a content basis, which will be impractical for most of us until microfilm is more extensively used; and that there be base plugs freely around so that phonographs can be tapped in almost everywhere. Miller implies that earphone-listening to Debussy is a satisfactory experience and fails to wonder whether the whole business of library processing does not need a thorough overhauling by people who are not impressed with the present conventions of this trade; R. H. Gates, in his section on ventilation, gives so much space to a particular new system, the T. E. G., as to afford it a weight possibly out of proportion to its present importance. This particular treatment has already had some unfortunate effects on those of us who are always hoping for a miracle.

Indeed, the stretching for miracle is most emphasized by the recurrent motif of modularization and flexibility as a way of avoiding the static buildings which Randall has mentioned. This thesis is perhaps too widespread at the moment. Perfect flexibility will usually result in the ability to do everything, but nothing very well. A few outstanding examples of applications of these principles have come, for example, before the Co-operative Committee on Library Building Plans; but clumsy or bad examples have been far more numerous. It will be unfortunate for the library world if the thesis is generally adopted, as seems possible. The

book gives a push, if only a slight one, in the direction of such an adoption. Perhaps greater emphasis should be placed on the construction of buildings to serve the next twenty-five years.

There is no real antidote to being taken in by one man's opinion on a controversial point, save free discussion. This is likely never to appear within the covers of a single book. It can and will appear on an unplanned basis in the various library periodicals, but to put together a well-rounded set of pros and cons from existing articles is laborious and not always satisfactory. The real answer to the individual planner's problem lies in arming himself first with a state of mind which will be created by this book better than by any other material of which the reviewer knows, and then by subjecting the ideas to the clash of criticism through such media as the cited Co-operative Committee and the corresponding group which is discussing the public library building.

This is really summed up in a part of Randall's peroration when he says:

You are going to build a great many libraries in the next few years. See to it that you undertake this task with due humility; that you realize before you begin that the production of a satisfactory building can be the result of nothing except earnest endeavor to find out first what is going to happen inside it; and that this is found out not by accident and not by chance, but only by intelligent investigation and study. . . .

To this there is little to add. If the criticism has been carping, the conclusion is, nonetheless, that this book is an outstanding contribution to a field which badly needed it; that Randall's "intelligent investigation and study" can best be begun by knowing the book thoroughly; and that as a probable classic it belongs at once on the personal shelves of every librarian who is going to build or is beginning to think about it. It should also be presented to the architect as soon as he has been designated.

JOHN E. BURCHARD

*Massachusetts Institute of Technology*

---

*General Education in the Humanities.* By HAROLD BAKER DUNKEL. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xix+321. \$3.50.

The Co-operative Study in General Education, which was carried on from January, 1939, to September, 1944, under the auspices of the

American Council of Education, was the work of approximately twenty-two colleges. Among the projects in the enterprise was the study of the problems of general education in the area of the humanities. This book is an account of that study.

It is inevitable that a review of the book should be a critique of the survey. Mr. Dunkel's account is a clear and honest report, not only of the methods employed in the study, but of the basic problems faced by the teachers who were engaged in it. The account does not side-step the difficulties which the group encountered. For example, it deals fairly with the conflicting opinions of the teachers engaged in the study concerning the unity of the humanities. It is clear, for instance, that some members of the group, thinking strictly in terms of subject-matter classifications of knowledge, found it difficult to find a unifying principle that would relate the study of language and the visual arts. Ultimately, however, the group settled upon the principle that the humanities are those disciplines which "make man more man in the eulogistic sense of the word; which contribute to a 'good life' based on free and enlightened choice among values." The recognition that the humanities are concerned with disciplines which lead to the recognition and appreciation of values in the arts, in philosophy, in history, and in language is sound. With this principle as the basis for the study, two courses, it would seem, were open to the group: (1) To study the disciplines appropriate to each of the areas which are productive of values (e.g., to philosophy, fiction, history, music, visual arts, etc.) and to determine how the exercise of the disciplines might lead students to the discovery and judgment of values; or (2) to examine the values of these arts which were presently accepted by the students as a basis for determining the interests and the needs of the students. The group chose the latter course. If they considered the alternative method of study, the book makes no mention of the fact. The device employed, therefore, in the study was to determine, by means of an inventory or check list, the reaction of students to value judgments in four distinct areas: students' general goals for life, students' religious concepts, students' beliefs about fiction, and opinions about art. The analysis of each student's response to the inventory provided a profile of his personal beliefs and current set of values; and the sum of all the students' responses provided an index to prevailing

patterns of beliefs held by typical college undergraduates. Assuming that any student's response was sincere, it was not difficult to characterize his religious attitudes or his aesthetic tastes. The problem, however, which remains to be answered after the student has made his own inventory, is the question of what shall be done with the evidence gathered. Having shown a student the limits of his aesthetic tastes, where does the teacher go from there? Where does the student go from there? The book attempts an answer. Each section includes a discussion of the uses of its inventory as a teaching aid. These discussions were written by teachers who cooperated in the study and represent their experience with the inventory. To this reviewer these reports are the least satisfactory portion of the book. This is not the fault of their authors. The fault, it seems to me, lies in the fact that the disciplines which must be taught if the student is to alter or enlarge his values remained unexamined. If we look at items from any one of the categories, we can see the problem more clearly. Here is a random selection of statements from the art inventory:

- (1) All art is imitation.
- (2) While appreciating a good work of art of times past, in your imagination you live in these past days and not in the present.
- (3) The only thing that counts in appreciating a work of art is whether it is able to touch a responsive chord in you or not.

Whether a student affirms or denies any one of these propositions, a teacher is confronted with several questions. Is it his task to teach the student that such conceptions are absolutely either right or wrong? Is it not his task to develop an understanding of the terms which are involved in these propositions? Is it not his task to direct the students' attention to the assumptions which underlie any of these judgments? Eminent critics have affirmed and have denied these propositions. These value judgments represent conclusions that ought to follow from the most rigorous kind of thinking. Successful humanistic study, it seems to me, demands that the meaning of such judgments be carefully explored. This, of course, is where the study of the humanistic disciplines begins. One may express the hope that some group of schools will undertake to examine the disciplines of the humanities and how they may best be presented to the students.

RUSSELL THOMAS

University of Chicago

An Alb  
by  
Gov  
\$5.0  
Americ  
phy  
and  
ER-I  
unde  
for  
Wils  
Americ  
Bog  
on E  
Bibliog  
AKE  
1948  
auth  
den.  
Bibliog  
FLO  
man  
The Boo  
Cour  
The B  
MD  
trate  
Vati  
Catalog  
Part  
Delic  
Jans  
tures  
right  
126;  
Ann  
copie  
The Cal  
Libr  
and  
Ill.:  
Colle  
Centenn  
7, 19  
Arth  
Occa  
Com  
brary  
hibiti  
fice,  
Chaucer  
edite  
Crov  
RICK  
Press

## BOOKS RECEIVED

- An Album of American Battle Art, 1755-1918.* Issued by the LIBRARY OF CONGRESS. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. xvi+319. \$5.00.
- America, Past and Present: An Annotated Bibliography of Children's Stories for Students, Teachers and Librarians.* Compiled by a CLASS OF TEACHER-LIBRARIANS, CHICAGO TEACHERS COLLEGE, under the direction of ELOISE RUE. ("Reading for Background," No. 17.) New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1948. Pp. 80. \$0.75.
- American Junior Colleges.* Edited by JESSE P. BOGUE. 2d ed. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948. Pp. ix+537. \$6.50.
- Bibliografi över svensk musiklitteratur, 1800-1945.* By ÅKE DAVIDSSON. Uppsala: Privately printed, 1948. Pp. viii+215. Kr. 12. Distribution by the author, Universitetsbiblioteket, Uppsala, Sweden.
- Bibliografía de la bibliografía dominicana.* By LUIS FLOREN LOZANO. Ciudad Trujillo: Roques Roman, 1948. Pp. viii+66.
- The Book of the States: 1948-1949, Vol. VII.* Chicago: Council of State Governments, 1948. Pp. xi+780.
- The Books Published by the Vatican Library, MDCCCLXXXV-MCMXXXVII: An Illustrated Analytic Catalogue.* Vatican City: Apostolic Vatican Library, 1947. Pp. liv+185.
- Catalog of Copyright Entries, Third Series, Vol. I, Parts 3-4: Dramas and Works Prepared for Oral Delivery, January-June, 1947; Part 6: Maps, January-June, 1947; Parts 12-13: Motion Pictures, January-June, 1947.* Washington: Copyright Office, Library of Congress, 1948. Pp. iv+126; iv+22; iv+44. Published semiannually. Annual subscription, \$3.00; \$2.00; \$3.00; single copies, \$1.50; \$1.00; \$1.50.
- The Catholic Booklist, 1948.* Edited for the Catholic Library Association by SISTER MARY LUELLA and SISTER MARY PETER CLAVER. River Forest, Ill.: Department of Library Science, Rosary College, 1948. Pp. 110. \$0.60.
- Centennial of the Settlement of Utah Exhibition, June 7, 1947-August 31, 1947: An Address by the Hon. Arthur V. Watkins, Senator from Utah on the Occasion of the Ceremonies Opening the Exhibition Commemorating the Settlement of Utah at the Library of Congress, Together with a Catalog of the Exhibition.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. iii+72. \$0.50.
- Chaucer's World.* Compiled by EDITH RICKERT; edited by CLAIR C. OLSON and MARTIN M. CROW; illustrations selected by MARGARET RICKERT. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948. Pp. xxi+456. \$6.75.
- Edmund Spenser and the Faerie Queene.* By LEICESTER BRADNER. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. xi+190. \$2.75.
- A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Argentina, 1917-1946.* By HELEN L. CLAGETT. ("Latin American Series," No. 32.) Washington: Library of Congress, 1948. Pp. vii+180. \$0.60.
- A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Bolivia.* By HELEN L. CLAGETT. ("Latin American Series," No. 12.) Washington: Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. viii+110. \$0.55.
- A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Ecuador.* By HELEN L. CLAGETT. ("Latin American Series," No. 18.) Washington: Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. viii+100. \$0.40.
- A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of the Mexican States.* By HELEN L. CLAGETT. ("Latin American Series," No. 13.) Washington: Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. v+180. \$0.60.
- A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Peru.* By HELEN L. CLAGETT. ("Latin American Series," No. 20.) Washington: Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. vii+188. \$1.00.
- A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Uruguay.* By HELEN L. CLAGETT. ("Latin American Series," No. 26.) Washington: Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. vi+123. \$0.50.
- A Guide to the Law and Legal Literature of Venezuela.* By HELEN L. CLAGETT. ("Latin American Series," No. 16.) Washington: Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. viii+128. \$1.50 (cloth).
- A Guide to the Official Publications of the Other American Republics.* Edited by HENRY V. BESSO. ("Latin American Series.") Vols. IV, Chile; VIII, Dominican Republic; IX, Ecuador; X, El Salvador; XI, Guatemala; XII, Haiti; XIII, Honduras; XIV, Nicaragua; XV, Panama; XVI, Paraguay. Washington: Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. 94; 40; 56; 64; 88; 23; 29; 33; 34; 61. Prices range from \$0.10 to \$0.25 per guide.
- Guide to United States Government Motion Pictures, Vol. I, No. 1 (June, 1947).* Washington: Motion Picture Division, Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. 104. \$0.40.
- Iowa Centennial Exhibition, December 28, 1946-April 27, 1947: An Address by the Hon. Bourke B. Hickenlooper, Senator from Iowa, on the Occasion of the Ceremonies Opening the Iowa Centennial Exhibition at the Library of Congress, Together with a Catalog of the Exhibition.* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. 84. \$0.50.
- John Milton at St. Paul's School: A Study of Ancient Rhetoric in English Renaissance Education.* By

- DONALD LEMEN CLARK. New York: Columbia University Press, 1948. Pp. x+269. \$3.50.
- Library Development Plan: With a Draft Library Bill for the Province of Bombay.* By S. R. RANGANATHAN. Aundh, India: Aundh Publishing Trust, 1947. Pp. 128. Rs. 3.
- Matthew Arnold: A Study in Conflict.* By E. K. BROWN. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. xiii+224. \$3.00.
- A Mirror for Librarians: Selected Readings in the History of Librarianship.* By JOHN L. THORNTON. London: Grafton & Co., 1948. Pp. 207. 15s.
- Modular Planning for College and Small University Libraries.* By DONALD E. BEAN and RALPH E. ELLSWORTH. Iowa City: Privately printed by the authors, 1948. Pp. 41+[12]. \$1.50. (Lithoprinted.) Order from R. E. Ellsworth, Old Dental Building, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.
- The National Archives: Thirteenth Annual Report of the Archivist of the United States for the Year Ending June 30, 1947.* ("Publication," No. 48-6.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1948. Pp. v+92.
- Niederdeutsche Mitteilungen*, Vol. III (1947). Issued by the NIEDERDEUTSCHEN ARBEITSGEMEINSCHAFT (Sällskapet för lågtysk forskning). Lund, Sweden: G. W. K. Gleerup, 1947. Pp. 177. Kr. 8.
- "Non-self-governing Areas: With Special Emphasis on Mandates and Trusteeships: A Selected List of References." Compiled by HELEN F. CONOVER. 2 vols. Washington: General Reference and Bibliography Division, Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. 467. Free to libraries. (Mimeographed.)
- The Proverb in Goethe.* By J. ALAN PFEFFER. ("Columbia University Germanic Studies," No. 18.) New York: King's Crown Press, 1948. Pp. 200. \$3.50.
- Psychological Atlas.* By DAVID KATZ. New York: Philosophical Library, 1948. Pp. x+142. \$5.00.
- "Report of a Survey of the Libraries of Cornell University for the Library Board of Cornell University, October 1947-February 1948." By LOUIS R. WILSON, ROBERT B. DOWNS, and MAURICE F. TAUBER. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1948. Pp. ix+202. \$2.00. (Mimeographed.)
- Select List of Unlocated Research Books*, No. 11 (May, 1947). Washington: Union Catalog Division, Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. 68.
- The Story up to Now: The Library of Congress, 1800-1946.* By DAVID C. MEARNs. (Reprinted from the *Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1946*, with the addition of illustrations and a slight revision of text.) Washington: Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. iii+226.
- Toward Public Understanding of Casework: A Study of Casework Interpretation in Cleveland.* By VIOLA PARADISE. ("Studies in Public Relations.") New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1948. Pp. 244. \$2.00.
- "United States Aviation Policy: A Selective Bibliography." Compiled by ARTHUR G. RENSTROM. Washington: Aeronautics Division, Library of Congress, 1947. Pp. 58. Free to libraries. (Mimeographed.)
- The Vatican Library: Rules for the Catalog of Printed Books.* Translated from the second Italian edition by THOMAS J. SHANAHAN, VICTOR A. SCHAEFER, and CONSTANTIN T. VESSELOWSKY. Edited by WYLLIS E. WRIGHT. Chicago: American Library Association, 1948. Pp. xii+426. \$18.00.
- What Comes of Training Women for War.* By DOROTHY SCHAFFTER for the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948. Pp. xviii+223. \$3.00.
- Youth-serving Organizations: National Nongovernmental Associations.* By M. M. CHAMBERS; prepared for the Committee on Youth Problems. 3d ed. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948. Pp. xi+162. \$3.00.

By  
and  
nell  
eo-

11  
vi-

co-  
he  
the  
di-  
A.)  
p.

dy  
LA  
m  
a.

li-  
u.  
of  
e-

of  
n  
,  
y  
y

y  
n  
al  
n

+  
s  
a  
+